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THE
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T A B L E

OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. For REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of New Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c., of which Accounts are given in the Review, — see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

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ERRATA in Vol. CV.

- Page 39. l. 32. for 'δρεπεκ-χυνόμενον,' read *δρεπεκχυνόμενον*.
128. l. 21. for 'may be,' read *it may be*.
319. note, l. 2. dele the word 'translated.'
385. l. 6. from bottom, place a comma after 'interdium.'
459. l. 2. for 'Voyage,' read *Travels*.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For SEPTEMBER, 1824.

ART. I. *State of Colombia*; or, Reports of the Secretaries of State of the Republic of Colombia, presented to the First Constitutional Congress in the Year 1823, the Thirteenth of the Republic. Translated from the Official Documents. 8vo. pp. 200. 6s. sewed. Treuttel and Co. 1824.

ART. II. *Letters written from Colombia*, during a Journey from Caracas to Bogotá, and thence to Santa Martha, in 1823. 8vo. pp. 208. 8s. Boards. Cowie and Co. 1824.

At the present moment, all authentic information is valuable and interesting that respects the new political empire which is rising under the denomination of Colombia; and the first of the two publications before us being official, it deserves our attention and our confidence. It consists of various state-papers, originating with different members of the Colombian government, which have been translated from the Spanish, and are now collectively presented to the English reader. First occurs a Message of the Executive Government of Colombia at the opening of the Constitutional Congress, signed by Santander; secondly, a Report of the Secretary of State for Foreign affairs, signed by Gual; thirdly, a Report of the Secretary of State for the Home Department, signed by Restrepa, which is considerably the most extensive and important communication, furnishing a comprehensive view of the internal state of the nation; fourthly, a Report of the Secretary of State for the Finance Department, signed by Castillo; fifthly, a Report of the Secretary of State for the Naval Department, and of the Secretary for the War Department, both signed by Mendes. All these give a high idea of the good sense and the good intentions of the several ministers, and deserve to be imitated in this country; where the agents of the executive power are by no means always on the alert to give an account of their conduct to the people, for whom they are intrusted to manage.

It appears that the Colombian government dates the birth of independence in the year 1810; and in all this time the forces of the parent-state have been diminishing, and those

of the new country have been increasing. It is evident that no regulations made in Spain could be carried into effect by that power in her quondam colonies; and therefore it is proper to withdraw from the court of Madrid any recognition of its rights of sovereignty, which are necessarily forfeited by the inability to exercise them. Martens, in his *Précis du Droit des Gens*, which the Holy Alliance in their negotiations with Bonaparte were wont to recognize as an authority, says expressly (§ 80.), "*Une nation étrangère peut se permettre de s'attacher au seul fait de possession, et traiter, comme indépendant de son ancien gouvernement, l'état, ou la province, qui jouit dans le fait de l'indépendance; et même traiter comme monarque celui, qui dans le fait tient les rênes du gouvernement, sans blesser par là les devoirs d'une rigoureuse neutralité.*" The indolent procrastination, by our ministers, of the recognition of Colombian independence, is not merely ruinous to the mercantile interests at stake, but seems to be an attempt to introduce a new law of nations, and to make prescription into a title to sovereignty; thus adding to the established trammels of the new system of legitimacy.

The great variety of subjects introduced in the Reports before us can be comprehended only by an enumeration of them, in part.

‘ *Home Department.*

‘ Section 1.: Of the Government; Publication of the Laws; Department of Secretaries of the Supreme Government; Political Government of the Departments; Political Government of the Provinces; Political Government of the Cantons; Corporations of the Cantons; Notaries Public of the Cantons; Liberty of Slaves; Liberty of the Natives.—Section 2.: Of the Police, Public Security; Health; Vaccination; Hospitals; Cemeteries; Poor House.—Section 3.: Of Encouragement and Naturalization of Foreigners; Internal Commerce; Weights and Measures; Highways; Inland Navigation; Canals; Agriculture and Arts; Mines.—Section 4.: Public Education, Primary Schools; Colleges; Universities.—Section 5.: Of Justice, High Court; Superior Courts of Justice; Inferior Tribunals and Judicatures; Tribunals of Commerce; Liberty of the Press and Decisions respecting it; Administration of Justice.—Section 6.: Ecclesiastical Affairs; Archbishops; Bishops; Vacancies; Regular Clergy; Suppressed Convents; Mission; Patriotism of the Clergy of Colombia.

‘ *Finance Department.*

‘ Customs; Tithes; Tobacco; Spirits; The Mint; Posts; Salt Works; Stamps; Alcabalas; Direct Tax.’

‘ *War Department.*

‘ Strength; Organization; The Guard of the Government; Administration; Clothing and Pay; Arms; Militia; Fortresses; Parks;

Parks ; Barracks and Lodgings ; Manufactories ; Retired and Invalids ; Instruction.'

In Signor Gual's Report, the relations of the government with foreign states are of course introduced. With reference to this country, it is observed that the friendship of Great Britain is of the highest importance ; and that every effort had been made, but hitherto in vain, to induce his Britannic Majesty's ministers to enter into direct relations with them. ' At length, however,' it is observed ;

' The government of his Britannic Majesty, on the 27th of April, 1822, declared the commerce of Great Britain with the ports of Colombia to be legal ; so that nothing now remains to be decided but the manner of giving to it effectual protection. The decision of this question now rests with the wisdom of his Majesty's advisers ; and in our humble opinion, nothing can so speedily and securely remove the difficulties which arise, as a direct arrangement with our government, recognizing previously our existence as a sovereign nation. Then will the commerce and the agriculture of Colombia arrive in a short time to a degree of prosperity superior to any thing that the most sanguine calculation can anticipate. Then will the commerce of Great Britain, from its immense capital, and its active and enterprising genius, in all probability arrive at an importance in our market, which does not appear at present to be duly appreciated, as there was reason to hope.

' If we are to credit what we have heard from London in several instances, we are necessitated to confess that the inconsiderate proceedings of Mr. Zea, both in the political and financial departments of our affairs, have materially conduced to embarrass and involve them. His circular note, from its style and the manner in which it was addressed, has certainly been looked upon, and received in many quarters, with great displeasure. His financial transactions were still more arbitrary, and destitute of every ground which could induce the government on its own responsibility to support them by its approbation, even with a regard to its own convenience.'

The Secretary for the Naval department refers thus to the career of Lord Cochrane, and represents the state of the marine :

' The services of a generous and magnanimous foreigner, who, consumed by the love of liberty, devoted his fortune and his life to the cause of the Republic, induced the government in 1816 to create an Admiral, who exercised almost exclusively the controul, the general command, and the administration of the navy. Notwithstanding the protection afforded by the government, he could never obtain that acceptance which his elevated rank required, and, in despite of his zeal, he succeeded as little in identifying himself with the Revolution, or in acquiring the esteem of our people. He saw himself isolated, if I may so express it, and not

having a spirit able to controul fate, he suffered it to run unrestrained, by diverting his attention from the sole object which should absorb it, and directed it to others not only of little importance, but even injurious to the Republic. Our vessels of war were neglected; our cruisers went to decay; our mercantile marine could not prosper; the Republic consumed, in vain, considerable sums in endeavouring to revive a body which, being in want of a head, could not continue to exist.

‘ Without performing any other service than transporting our troops from Margarita to Cumana and to Hacha, our little squadron disappeared, by degrees; being reduced to five bad vessels from thirteen which it had before reckoned. Not only was the number of vessels diminished, but of the five which remained two were unfit for service, and the refitting of one of them has cost large sums.

‘ The constituent congress felt, without doubt, the cause of the bad condition of our navy, and in part removed it by passing the law of the 4th October, suppressing the office of Admiral.’

These five vessels, however, have since increased to nineteen; of which six are corvettes, seven brigs, and six schooners: but the want of larger ships is lamented, as well as the other difficulties attending the establishment of a naval power; especially with regard to officers, most of whom are at present foreigners, as indeed are also chiefly the seamen.

From the Home Secretary's Report, we extract a passage respecting the Emancipation of Slaves, which may give some useful hints to our West Indian governors.

LIBERTY OF SLAVES.

‘ The law of the 19th of July of the year 11, which has given liberty to all the children of female slaves, which has abolished the trade in Negroes, and established the boards of manumission, has been put in force through all the territory of the Republic. In the December of the same year, the period fixed by the law for the liberation of the slaves, who could purchase it with the sums assigned by the law, some received their liberty, blessing the legislators of Colombia, who have conferred on them so great a benefit. The number of those who were liberated in last December has been greater, and the government has well founded hopes that the funds will annually increase.

‘ It appears that in some provinces of the Republic, it is predicted, that, by the gradual extinction of slavery, the produce of the fields and the working of the mines will be greatly diminished. It is not difficult to suppose, that this may happen; but without doubt, that is a less evil, than that the inhabitants of these provinces should live over a volcano, always ready to make a dreadful explosion. It is much better that their agriculture and their mining should suffer slow evils, to which remedies may be constantly applied, which will operate with the same slowness, than

that, by preserving the ancient system of personal slavery, they should insensibly accumulate combustibles, for a terrible conflagration. The wisdom and the justice, which has animated our legislators, is fully acknowledged in this respect.

LIBERTY OF THE NATIVES.

The greater part of the civilized Indians of Colombia has been, and still is, a class totally degraded. They were reduced by the Spanish laws to a state of perpetual pupillage, and it may be said, with truth, that they were the slaves of their priests and their magistrates. Both the one and the other commanded them to be publicly whipped, even though they might be in years, and for the most trifling faults. Thus it is, that, living as they did in a state of debasement and degradation, the energy of their faculties, physical and intellectual, has been completely destroyed. Obligated to cultivate their lands in common, they never have improved them; and without higher thoughts than to vegetate mournfully in their villages, they lived in misery, and with difficulty were able to pay the tribute of from six to nine dollars a year, which all the males were bound by law to pay from the age of eighteen years to fifty.

The first general congress, which was thoroughly informed of the condition in which the natives of the Republic stood, and which wished to lay the foundations of the political and civil liberties of the citizens, sanctioned the law which placed the Indians on an equality with the other inhabitants of Colombia; which suppressed the then tributes and the personal labours which had been wrongfully introduced; the law which provided, in fine, that the resguardos or common lands should be divided into fee-simple estates within the term of five years. Although this law cannot exalt the present generation of natives from the state of abasement in which they are, from the impossibility of changing a character already decided, there is great reason to hope that it may now improve. The example of the other classes of the state, the mixture of which will take place amongst them by means of intermarriages; the instruction which will be bestowed on the Indians in the primary schools where their children may learn to read and write; and, in fine, the abolition of the degrading and barbarous practice of whipping them publicly, will, it is believed, have a powerful influence on the improvement of the natives.

The executive has encouraged, by every means within its reach, the primary schools in the parishes of the natives: it has issued a decree on the 14th of March last year, providing that four Indian youths should be admitted into each of the colleges of Bogota, Caracas, and Quito, and two into each of the others. As it was impossible that they should be instructed in the colleges without some pecuniary aid, the government has allowed each student ten dollars a month from the public funds. This measure being carried into effect, which the government submits to the approbation of the congress, will be a powerful stimulus to the Indians to induce them to cause their children to be educated. Those who receive the benefits of improvement in the colleges will come to be clergymen, or will fill public offices, and by raising themselves

selves above their former condition, will give more exalted hopes to all their kindred. Thus, by degrees, the natives will become a different description of men, under the influence of liberty and republican institutions.

‘ There are no laws which can have so powerful an influence over the future destinies of Colombia, as that which has declared the children of slaves to be free, and that of the 4th of October of the year 11, which has placed the natives on an equality with the rest of the citizens. Within the space of fifty or sixty years at the farthest, Colombia will be inhabited only by freemen, the Indians will have been intermixed with the European and the African race, and a third will spring from them, which experience has shewn will be free from the defects of the natives ; and at length the difference of casts will disappear by degrees from our soil. This is certainly a flattering and a very pleasing prospect ; but for its accomplishment, there is need of various acts of the legislative body, to render the original laws perfect, and which the government will point out in their proper time.’

Concerning Public Education, the following remarks occur:

‘ PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

‘ The law of the 2d August, 1821, which directed the establishment of elementary schools in every parish of Colombia, has been carried into effect as far as circumstances would permit. A number has been already founded ; others are in process of establishment, and the government hopes that, by the constant and assiduous attention of the officers of the executive to this duty, every difficulty, which may arise, will be at length overcome. The chief difficulty is the poverty of fathers of families in some districts, who are unable to pay a master ; but as their condition will improve, as soon as they feel the effects of internal tranquillity, this obstacle will, in some time, disappear.

‘ The remarkable want in Colombia of masters, and of books of primary instruction, is also a serious difficulty and retards the progress of schools. This springs from the ignorance in which the people have been sunk under the colonial system. The spreading of information, so that even in the most distant parishes there may be a citizen capable of instructing the children in reading, writing, and arithmetic, with a moderate degree of perfection, must be the work of time and of the government of a republic. The want of elementary books for the primary schools will be remedied immediately on the increase of printing, and when there are printers who will multiply editions of useful works.

‘ By article 15. of the above-mentioned law of the 2d of August, the executive was empowered to found model-schools of mutual instruction in the chief cities of Colombia. The government has the satisfaction of announcing to the congress, that this excellent method, which facilitates primary education so considerably, has been established in the capital of the Republic, from whence it is spreading to the provinces. A master has gone by way of Carthagena to attend the model-school of Caracas, with

the design of leaving the school of that city established; another has proceeded to the south, who, in passing, will establish the school of Popayan, and afterwards those of Quito, Guayaquil, and the other southern provinces. As early as the month of January, 1822, the executive issued a well-considered regulation, whereby it prescribed the order in which the system of mutual instruction should be communicated to the capitals of provinces, to the cantons, and the parishes. The people have received this new institution with pleasure, and the government is of opinion that it will extend itself, at no distant period, to the most remote hamlets. Thus the people begin to perceive the vast difference between the possession of a government of their own, and belonging to a nation whose centre is 2000 leagues distant. The Spanish government did not endow a single school in the space of 300 years; while that of the Republic, although in the midst of the dangers of war, and of the thunder of cannon, endeavours to promote public education, and to diffuse knowledge through all parts.

The means of Colombia for carrying on its military contest form an essential point of inquiry; and the War Secretary thus represents its '*Strength*.'

'When the constituent congress of the year 11 was dissolved, the army consisted of twenty-two thousand nine hundred and seventy-five men. The garrisons, which it has been necessary to establish in the departments newly incorporated with the Republic, and the enterprises and continued exertions of a desperate enemy, have caused this force to be increased to thirty-two thousand four hundred and seventy-six men, in the order following: twenty-five thousand seven hundred and fifty infantry, four thousand two hundred and ninety-six cavalry, and two thousand five hundred and twenty artillery.

'As well the force which the army had before, as the nine thousand four hundred and ninety-six men, the amount of the increase, and those who have entered to supply casualties, serve for an unlimited period. There are some, but very few, who are in the service from the years 1817, 1818, and 1819; but the greater part have been enlisted from 1820. No one receives either bounty or additional pay, because such recompences are unknown in our service. The cavalry hitherto mounted on horses, which the liberality of the citizens voluntarily afforded for temporary service, wants to be entirely remounted, and remains subject to the same very precarious and ruinous mode of supply. This is the exclusive cause of a thousand dreadful disorders and violences, as injurious to discipline as contrary to the right of property; because the soldier who loses his horse is obliged to take any other he may meet, without consulting, very frequently, the will of the owner; and the officer, who has not the means of providing him with one lawfully, tolerates, consents, or perhaps gives an order to that effect, to avoid the dissolution of his corps. The government does not know that this practice has continued, and has reason to believe that the constitution has been observed even

in this respect, although it has attributed to it the retirement from active service of the greater part of the cavalry.

'In the artillery-force are included four hundred artisans employed in the workshops; the remainder is absolutely necessary for the service of this branch in the fortresses, and the depôts of the interior.

'If the immense extent of our coasts, and the obstinate character of our enemies, be taken into consideration, it will be seen that this army, far from being too strong, does not secure the Republic against the rash invasions, which desperation every day recommends to the Spaniards, even in their last agonies. So long as the present war exists with its present heat, so long as the independence of the Republic is not recognized by the principal powers of Europe, and until our neighbours of Mexico and Peru consolidate their institutions, it appears prudent to keep up this force, which is calculated, almost exactly, at one per cent., in proportion to the population.'

Altogether, this instructive and authentic volume does honor to the governors of Colombia; and having now called the attention of our readers to its contents, as well as extracted some of the information which they convey, we will turn to the author of the '*Letters from Colombia*.' This work is anonymous, but the eight epistles to a friend, of which it consists, are entertaining and unaffected. The writer embarked at Falmouth in the beginning of the year 1823, landed at La Guayra in February, and thence proceeded to Caracas, to the lake of Valencia, to Barquesimeto, Tocuyo, and Merida; which last place strikes him as especially adapted to become the metropolis of Colombia, because it enjoys a navigable communication by means of the river Chama with the vast lake of Maracaibo, which is accessible to European shipping. It is therefore the most inland spot to which the productions and information of the Old World can have ready access, and whence they may best be diffused through the interior. — From Merida, the author proceeded through Pamplona to Bogotá, where he made a considerable stay, and collected much statistical information concerning the country. He thence descended the rapid and vast river Magdalena to Pueblo Viejo, whence he visited by land Santa Martha and Carthagena: at which last place he embarked for Jamaica, and terminates his narrative.

The difficulties encountered in this long and desolate journey were considerable: but they seem to have been amply repaid by the various, picturesque, romantic, beautiful, strange, and sublime scenery, which the magnificent mountains and rivers of the region display at every step. The soil is wonderfully fertile, the vegetation profuse, and the temper-

temperature of the climate, in consequence of the great elevation of the region, is similar to that of Languedoc, the most favoured part of Europe. In the vallies may be ripened the tropical fruits, and on the hills may be grown those of the temperate zone.

In the first letter, La Guayra is described as a most unsafe anchorage, being constantly exposed to a rough sea. When the author landed, not fewer than *fourteen hulls* were then on the beach; a violent swell from the north-east, unaccompanied by any wind, having in the preceding month cast on shore every vessel, except an American frigate, that was lying off the port. La Guayra has been adopted as the haven most contiguous to Caracas: but, as above half of that city has been destroyed by an earthquake, and grievously impoverished by the successive confiscations and requisitions of the royalist and the republican armies, it seems expedient to abandon the re-establishment of its prosperity, and to direct the commerce with Europe into the lake of Maracaibo.

We shall copy from the fourth letter the author's account of Merida:

‘ Having recruited at Merida three days, and it now being the eve of our departure, I must give you some account of so charming a spot, and its neighbourhood. It is considered by travellers to be about half way between Caracas and Bogotá; but I believe there is no accurate computation of the distance. “The city was founded as long since as 1558, under the name of St. Jago de los Caralleros, and is situated on a table-land of three leagues in length, and one broad,” surrounded by the rivers Macujun, which has its source to the north in “los Paramos de los Conejos,” — the “Albarregas,” and the Chama, which empties itself into the Lake of Maracaibo; here are united with extraordinary felicity the greatest gifts of nature, soil, climate, and situation; the first is of that peculiar quality as to be equally adapted to all the productions of a tropical climate, as well as those of northern latitudes; and in its present *imperfect* state of cultivation, it yields, within view of the city, cocoa, coffee, and cotton, indigenous to a warm climate; plantains, maize, all kinds of roots, such as arracacha, yuca, vegetables, and the best of fruits in high perfection; which require considerable heat; moreover wheat, barley, peas, potatoes, &c. are equally abundant, although thriving in a comparatively cool atmosphere.

‘ The primary cause of these heterogeneous productions, so different in their nature, is the climate varying according to the position of the land, from an excess of heat to the greatest intensity of cold. In the vale of the Chama, for instance, running at the foot of the table-land, the heat is probably between 80° and 90°, and at the summit of the mountains, (15,000 feet above the level of the sea,) which form its boundary, and immediately fronting

ing the town, you have perpetual snow. Its site is most striking and singularly beautiful; ascending from the valley by a very steep and narrow pass, you gain the summit of an extensive table-land, tending in a slight degree towards an inclined plane as it runs westward. The city commences at the eastern extremity, covering at least a square half league. On the north, south, and east, the sides of the mountain are perpendicular, and to the west, as I have before observed, gradually sloping in an extensive "*plateau*." At the bottom of each precipice are the three above-named rivers, and beyond, in each direction, rise a chain of lofty mountains of more or less fertility. Those to the south, which are the highest, are covered with large forest-trees, and above their dark green appear the rocky summits enveloped in perpetual snow. I can give you but a faint outline of this most picturesque and delightful spot! the city, being in the middle region, enjoys a temperature extraordinarily moderate and agreeable; the heat never being oppressive, and cold scarcely sensible, the average is from 67° to 70° . Next to Caracas, this is by far the largest town in the province of Venezuela, and, like it, two-thirds at least is a heap of ruins from the same melancholy cause (its population, in 1804, amounted to near 12,000 persons, whereas at present 3000 is probably the extent). The prodigious velocity of the shock which laid both cities in ruins is inconceivable; the distance is nearly 500 miles, and yet the convulsion was simultaneous! Merida, in proportion to its size, has suffered more than Caracas, for with the exception of two streets, at least a mile in length, it presents an unvaried picture of ruin and desolation. Merida is the capital of a department, the see of a bishop, and a municipality. Before the calamity of 1812, it possessed five convents, and three parish churches; at present one only of the former remains, that of St. Domingo, which, since the abolition of religious orders by the decree of Congress, is converted into the cathedral. Here is a convent of nuns, twenty-three in number, of the order of St. Clara, still existing, an hospital, and public college, in which sixty students are instructed in Spanish, Latin, natural philosophy, and theology. In like manner to Caracas, the streets intersect each other at right angles, each having in the centre a clear stream of running water. I assure you I do not exaggerate in setting this forth as the most delightful spot the imagination can paint. What might not be made of it, if peopled by European families of enlightened ideas, and with sufficient capital to rebuild and beautify the city as its situation deserves? With any society it might be made a delightful residence. There is a great deal of land on the "*Mesa*," in its immediate vicinity, which could be converted into gardens and pleasure-grounds, capable of producing the finest fruits. The surrounding country offers abundance of productive soil for those disposed to agriculture. The intrinsic value of lands is of course influenced by their site and irrigation, as well as their proximity to principal towns and sea-ports; and in all these points the neighbourhood of this town is abundantly favored. There could not be a spot better adapted for the capital of the province, for
which,

which it enjoys the following advantages : — placed in a central position, it would be an entrepôt for the commerce of the *Llanos*, the most fertile part of the interior, whence their produce might be conveyed for exportation to the lake of Maracaibo, distant only four or five days' journey, and which, by an improvement of roads, might be reduced to two or three. The river Chama, already become a considerable body of water, might, I conceive, although at considerable expense and labour, owing to the velocity of the current, be made navigable ; in which case it would, by its communication with the lake, give to the town almost the advantages of a maritime situation. The abundance of mountain-rivers and streams would give great facilities for manufactories, mills, and machinery in general. We understood that land might be purchased here at very low rates from individuals, to whom it principally belongs, and in whose hands it is entirely neglected ; its natural advantages are too many to allow of its long continuing uncultivated. — being acquainted with the Gov. Col. Peredes, he quartered us in the best house in the town ; one that has been lately built by a *Senor Lobo*, the most complete and certainly the cleanest I have seen in the country ; it is well adapted for the heat, with a corridor round the inner court, large airy rooms, &c. We experienced great civility from our host during our stay here, and have fared excellently well, to make up for short commons *en route*. Provisions of all kinds are plentiful ; wine only is not to be procured, in consequence of the communication with Maracaibo being stopped. Our relay of mules we have agreed for with *Senor Lobo*. We proceed on our march to-morrow morning, and the impressions which Merida (from what it might be, more than what it actually is) has made upon us, will, I venture to say, be as lasting as they are pleasing !"

In the seventh letter, an instructive account is given of the political institutions of the country, and of its metropolis, Bogotá ; concerning which little was hitherto known. We shall therefore introduce some account of it.

Several persons have agreed in informing me that the population of Bogotá exceeds 35,000 ; the streets always appear well filled. There is, however, a larger proportion of monks, nuns, and clergy, than in any other part, or perhaps in the whole Republic combined. When seen from the mountains at the back it has a very pretty effect. The streets, all built at right angles, have an appearance of great regularity, and have a stream of water constantly flowing in the centre ; there are, also, several handsome public fountains. Great as is the extent of the city, I think I am not much out in computing that the churches and convents cover one-half of the ground. There are no less than *thirty-three*, which, with their respective domes and towers, very much enliven the view of the city, although essentially they must prey upon the industry and property of its inhabitants. These are really the only edifices that distinguish themselves. The religious mania has now happily subsided, and the people of Bogotá, excepting only the

the populace, have thrown off the yoke of blind and tacit obedience, with which the Spanish government made them vassals of the priesthood, (thereby keeping them both in subjection and ignorance,) and are become independent of its power, and the belief of their infallibility. Many of the convents are in part, and others wholly deserted since the Revolution; nevertheless there is still a redundant number of drones! The ground that some of the convents cover is immense.

The streets are generally narrow, all of them paved, and the principal ones have footpaths. By far the liveliest, and built with the greatest regularity, is the *Calle Real*. The ground-floors of the houses are occupied by shops, with one story above, each habitation having a large wooden balcony painted green. This street is well paved; and as there are no carts, or vehicles of any description, the traffic being hitherto exclusively carried on with mules, it does not require frequent repair. At the extremity of the *Calle Real* is the principal square, where the daily market is held; one side being occupied by the palace, the other by the custom-house, the cathedral, and its offices.

Bogotá is well supplied with all the necessaries of life; meat, vegetables, and poultry, are very abundant, but there is no fish. With the exception of pines and *granadillas*, the fruits are neither so fine nor so plentiful as in warmer regions, notwithstanding they enumerate thirty different sorts. Articles of luxury are rare, and very expensive. Very tolerable French wines, however, were to be had, during our stay, at the rate of five to six shillings a bottle; but at present it frequently occurs that the stock is exhausted before fresh supplies arrive. European manufactures are likewise sold; but generally at extravagant prices, and often of very inferior quality. The following articles will give some idea of their relative value.

A hat, 16 dollars; pair of boots, 16 dollars; coat of inferior cloth, 30 dollars; superfine cloth coat, 60 dollars; a dozen of common tumblers, 10 dollars; a dozen of common cups and saucers, 9 dollars.

The principal merchants of Bogotá send to Jamaica to purchase their stock of goods.

The costume of the inhabitants is singular, especially that of the women. A lady of the first importance and a common person dress in the same style when they walk out. A black gown in the Spanish fashion; a square piece of blue cloth which covers their heads, and hangs down to their waists; with this they generally envelope themselves, so as barely to leave the face visible; over it they wear a large black beaver or silk hat, with a very broad brim. This at first sight has a most singular and *outré* appearance; the ladies allow it to be a barbarous fashion, but want courage to break through the custom. About the feet, as with their peninsular progenitors, there is considerable coquetry. The common people on certain occasions are very smart; but as the women of this class, as well as the men, are barefooted, their bugled and lace-trimmed dresses appear very much out of character.

racter. The peasants, over other garments, wear a full kind of mantle called a *roquilla*, formed of a long square of cloth, of striped cotton manufacture of the country; a hole in the centre admits the head, and it falls loosely over the shoulders, completely protecting the body. The arms being hid, it gives the wearer a very indolent appearance, but it has a certain degree of elegance from its hanging in easy folds.

As far as I had an opportunity of judging, Bogotá is the most justly celebrated place in the whole Republic for beautiful women. The change is the more striking, after the hideous population one meets with in many of the towns and villages in the great extent of country between the two capitals. It is not from a few instances that one is led to form such an opinion; the majority of the female sex here being fairly entitled to this reputation. From the coolness of the climate their complexions are naturally fair, and very clear. They inherit at the same time the fine expressive dark eyes, and regularity of features, of the Spanish women, although partaking but in a slight degree of their elegant figures, owing to the careless manner of dressing, and setting off their persons. However they have pretty feet, and an easy carriage, for which the former are greatly distinguished. One cannot help being struck at this agreeable change; but from so great a superiority of personal appearance, there is the more to regret in the absence of those endowments of mind and conduct, that alone render beauty permanently attractive. The illusion is here destroyed by the absence of both! There are perhaps few cities (it is to be hoped so at least) where the women are so generally depraved; and although there are, no doubt, individuals of uncorrupted morals, and virtuous conduct, it is too evident that their number is but small.

The heavy rains having in part subsided, my curiosity was much excited to visit the celebrated *Salto*, or falls of Teguendama, while augmented by the great increase of the waters. I left the city at day-break, crossing the plain in a south-westerly direction. At the distance of three leagues and a half is the village of Soacha, situated in the plain, and encompassed by fertile corn lands; from hence to the river Bogotá was about half a league, where I was obliged to leave my horse, and cross the river in a canoe, it having overflowed its banks to a considerable extent; the width might be about that of the Thames at Chelsea. Having engaged a guide at the village, we were both accommodated with fresh horses at an *hacienda*, to enable us to complete the expedition. The road from this lies across the ridge of mountains which forms the boundary of the plain in the south-west, from the summit of which there was a grand view of the low land; a large portion of it being inundated, had all the appearance of an extensive lake, with variously shaped hills rising abruptly from its waters. The horizon on the opposite side of the plain, formed by a long range of eminences of various heights, was very picturesque. This fall is one of the world's greatest wonders, probably the most extraordinary of its kind, even in this country, where we constantly

stantly see nature in her grandest and most fantastic forms ; from the river to the fall is a distance of about a league. Having ascended the heights, the country becomes all at once most luxuriant in wood, and wild shrubs of peculiar beauty ; a long and winding descent succeeded through a dark thicket, from whence, at a considerable distance, you first hear the roaring of the waters ; a quarter of a mile from the *Salto*, we were again obliged to leave our horses, and descend by a precipitous pathway to the brink of the precipice ; but how can I convey to you any idea of the tremendous sight it offers ! The river I before mentioned, having wound through the plain, contracts at this point into a narrow but deep bed, not exceeding forty feet in breadth ; the banks on either side are clothed with trees through which it flows with increased force, owing to its confined limits. Imagine yourself placed at the edge of the precipice, on a level with the bed of the river, and distant from it about fifty yards, you observe this immense body of water precipitated to the depth of *six hundred and fifty* feet, with indescribable force, into a capacious basin, the sides of which consist of solid perpendicular rock. It is almost presumption to attempt the description of a sight so sublimely beautiful !

‘ This overwhelming body of water, when it first parts from its bed, forms a broad arch of a glossy appearance, a little lower down it assumes a fleecy form, and ultimately in its progress downwards, shoots forth into millions of tubular shapes, which chase each other more like sky-rockets than any thing else I can compare them to. The changes are as singularly beautiful as they are varied, owing to the difference of gravitation, and rapid evaporation, which takes place before reaching the bottom. The noise with which this immense body of water falls is quite astounding ; sending up dense clouds of vapour, which rise to a considerable height, and mingle with the atmosphere, forming in their ascent the most brilliant rainbows. The most conclusive proof of the extraordinary evaporation, is the comparatively small stream which runs off from the foot of the fall. To give you some idea of its tremendous force, it is an asserted fact, that experiments have more than once been made of forcing a bullock into the stream, and that no vestige of him has been found at the bottom, but a few of his bones.’

This agreeable contribution to Colombian geography merits alike the notice of the merchant and the emigrant : while it excites a wish that some scientific traveller would undertake a residence sufficiently long to study and catalogue its animal, vegetable, and mineral productions. — A map of this new empire is affixed, clearly engraven, and in size nearly two feet square.

ART. III. *The Privileges of the University of Cambridge*; together with additional Observations on its History, Antiquities, Literature, and Biography. By George Dyer, Author of the History of the University and Colleges of Cambridge. 2 Vols. 8vo. 2*l.* 2*s.* Boards. Longman and Co. 1824.

REVIEWERS have sometimes been reproached with not reading the books which they criticize. Such, however, has never been our practice: but, if it were at any time defensible, it would be when works like the present are brought forwards for examination. In truth, no penance more expiatory could be devised for crimes transcending any that can be imputed to us, than the examination of these sheets of letter-press, which the good-natured and ingenuous author himself calls a farrago. To hunt for a meaning, an object, a proposition defended, a dogma confuted, an error corrected, in two immense octavos consisting of twelve hundred closely printed pages, would be an utter loss of labor. We wander not indeed in "fancy's maze," but stumble over heaps of rubbish without finding a path or descrying a light, wrapt in an Egyptian fog which darkens and suspends all our faculties. Mr. Dyer's book is the very perfection of disorder:—it is "chaos come again;" alike the lumber-room of things forgotten, and of things not worthy of being remembered. Occasionally he deceives us with a promise of something being about to be discussed,—some antiquarian question to be resolved,—or some historical fact to be settled;—and just as we are growing impatient for the information, off the author sets at full trot into a tedious unmeaning apology for something that he means to do, or some frivolous and unnecessary excuse for not doing it; and this unconscionable prosiug occupies at least three-fifths of the work. The greater part of it, indeed, might be said to be merely prefatory matter if any thing followed it, but his are "avenues which lead to nothing." Such are his candor and simplicity, that he gives us his very soliloquies at his writing-desk, and introduces us to his original intentions, (a motley confused groupe,) then to those which succeeded them, and, lastly, to his reasons for abandoning both. His book, according to his own confessions, is a series of after-thoughts: to make its arrangement still more luminous, that which was to have been at the beginning of the first volume is put into the second; and a piece of Latin intended merely as a dedication swells into a disquisition, if that can be called a disquisition in which nothing is discussed. One part he is obliged to write within a certain space of press-work, and therefore every word is measured that the limits might not be exceeded:—a mode

— a mode of composition which, if generally practised, would have the double inconvenience of preventing a good writer from saying enough, and obliging an indifferent one to say too much.

Such are, we are unwillingly compelled to remark, the principal materials of Mr. Dyer's work: but, as our readers may wish for a specimen of his *naïveté* and ingenuousness in shewing us all the dust and disorder of his work-shop, we take at random the following extract from the preface, or rather one of the prefaces, to the first volume:

'As to the length of this Dissertation' (the Latin dissertation intended for a *summary* of the volumes) 'the truth is, that the writer ventured to speak on a few points, which some might think he had better not have touched upon at all. This, too, he felt himself, so far as prudence was concerned: but having gone a certain length, he found it necessary to proceed; for there are certain cases, in which nothing is said or done without amplification. Declarations or propositions, and more particularly on delicate, disputed points, may, without a proper statement of facts, and a due mixture of arguments, appear like baseless assertions, or impudent dogmas. When the mind, too, breaks loose in quest of ideas, which (though familiar to it once) it may have lost, you cannot answer for its return: it is apt to lose all sense of distance; and writers, unfatigued by their own discursions, are apt to forget that their readers may not possess the same degree of perseverance. Here, also, the writer perceives many repetitions, more, indeed, than he was aware of: for the English part of the volumes having been worked off a considerable time, and the sheets not being before him when he composed the Latin Dissertation, he finds he has brought together again several things, which being strongly impressed on his mind, followed in the natural order of his ideas; but having been spoken of in part elsewhere, they may be justly censured as repetitions.'

'With respect to the Latin Dissertation, to be still more particular, it may be thought by some, that the term, *Generalis Dissertatio*, and the manner of handling it, contradict what the writer states above, and in his Address to his Subscribers, to have been his original intention in writing it, viz. to make a short address, in the form of a dedication; but the truth is, nothing more was intended, than to give a summary view of the contents of the volumes, with his reasons for publishing them. Such a summary, as it lies in the mind, is a sort of bird's eye view, and may seem to occupy but little space there; but when put on paper, it falls, as it were, into perspective, and may run out to unforeseen length, and uncalculated varieties. It was done by piecemeal. The title was of subitaneous recollection; and those articles which run out to the greatest length, in the event, did not enter into the original design. These are the best reasons, which he can give, as an apology for the plan itself, and in explanation of its execution; of which a further account may be seen in the writer's Address to his Subscribers.'

'In

* In the History of the University-press, in the second volume, a few blank pages having been left standing a considerable time, the writer was obliged, as he drew towards the close of them, to measure every word, that his copy might not exceed the press-work to be formed; and, perhaps, the last paragraphs have expressed, though not incorrectly, yet not quite fully, what he meant to say.

We respect no man more than Mr. Dyer, from all that we have ever heard of him. Early in life, he renounced, for conscience-sake, every hope of worldly advantage; and wanting little, but solaced with the manly resolve of not deriving that little from any other resource than his own exertions, he commenced the trade of author. "*Nullum ferè scribendi genus non tetigit*:"—but we must not pursue the quotation. He has been by turns poet, theologian, critic, commentator, and politician: his labors have been honorable, and independent; and, if they have not procured for him the splendid distinctions of literary fame, they have brought him a peaceful and virtuous subsistence. His characteristic quality is an amiable ingenuousness of mind, and if he be not "in wit a man," he is certainly "in simplicity a child;" for it is this that seduces him into those egotistical wanderings which it is so difficult to pardon in the greatest writers, and which nothing can render palatable but the most powerful eloquence and the brightest imagination. We have said enough to shew our moral estimate of Mr. Dyer: but, when a voluminous work, unprofitably swelling the huge catalogue of printed books, comes before us, personal esteem must give way to the higher considerations of duty.

If, however, any thing can excuse the publication of so indigested a mass, or extenuate its imperfections, (or, rather, compensate for its redundancies,) this plea must be found in the motives which hurried it to the press, and which the author avows with a candor that is quite his own. He had announced his work, he tells us, many years ago: but the same thoughtless simplicity which beset poor Parson Adams, and caused him to leave behind him the sermons which he had journeyed to London in order to publish, occasionally visits Mr. Dyer. Having begun to prepare his materials, obstacles arose, perplexed him, and drove him on a new scent. The truth is, that he had prematurely undertaken a task the difficulties of which he had never estimated, and had begun to write before he had begun to read. Like John Bunyan, he might have said,

"When first I took my pen in hand,
What for to write I did not understand."

After much tossing about of his materials, (his own phrase,) and his perplexities still increasing, he seems to have hit on the best cure for so troublesome a state of mind, by betaking himself to another of a still more serious and extensive nature: but, finding to his great surprize that the having a second work in hand did not accelerate the execution of the first, his embarrassments augmented, and he tells us that 'he did not know which way to turn himself.' He was thus in a situation like that of Captain Macheath in the song, and would have been happier with one of his mistresses, had the other been away. Time, however, which waits for none, slipped on; and the author continued his new occupations till the old labors fairly glided out of his mind, when he was jogged on the elbow by a querist in that celebrated repository of queries, the Gentleman's Magazine; who inquired what was become of Mr. Dyer's "*Privileges of Cambridge*?" The query startled him, and called forth a "lengthy" address to his original subscribers; many of whom had forgotten the whole affair, and many others been called to a state in which they had to answer for their own sins both of omission and commission. Since it is his custom to consider every thing relative to himself or his writings as interesting to the public, he enters into the detail with his usual prolixity, and introduces us to '*the backward chambers* of his mind,' if we may quote his own expression.

'The plan, then, naturally, and even necessarily, ran out into considerable extent. Numerous ideas crowded on the writer's mind, not new indeed — they were old acquaintance — but they were to be brought out by recollection, and much thought; to be clothed in a new, even a foreign dress; to be brought into new relations, and made to serve some new purposes. They lay, as it were, in a train, like the links of a chain, and were drawn out, instinctively, yet not collectively, but separately, one after another: for, as the more critical ideas lay in the backward chambers of the mind, they advanced, not indeed quite at random, but by connections, and associations with other ideas: and, in fact, some were of too large a compass, and too delicate a texture, to be handled loosely: they required to be shewn at full length, or not to have been meddled with at all.'

It is time to tell our readers "what the book is about:" but this is certainly not the easiest part of our task. The first volume alone keeps the promise of the title-page; and, containing an index or table of the antient charters of the University, taken from Hare's *Registrum Magnum* and the more recent collection of Dr. Parris, it may, with some latitude of phrase, be said to pertain to her Privileges. Of the dissertation or rather dissertations on those privileges, to observe that they

they are desultory, and unconnected with the main subject, is the mildest phrase which they merit. Does Mr. Dyer consider that there are limits to the patience even of the most complacent readers? Was it necessary to waste so many pages in proving the uncontested truisms contained in the following passage, relative to the privileges of Cambridge in the papal period?

‘ From that order, [the order of Edward III. as to the four monastic orders in Oxford and Cambridge,] certain conclusions may be drawn, with respect to the papal authority over our Universities in ancient times, — that it was exercised by assumption, and submitted to by sufferance; that it sunk in the scale, in proportion as our kings resumed their regular rights, and were put in their proper place; — the king’s authority being paramount; — and, that as the privileges granted by the popes were presumptions, they became encroachments injurious to the liberties both of the town and University, liable, however, even while the Holy See was in the zenith of its power, to be checked by our kings.

‘ Time was when a Pope’s Bull could operate as a charm, or a horror, to all Europe, conferring privileges incalculably great, or inflicting punishments most dreadfully severe; sometimes like a second Venus, giving peace and indulgence not less to universities than to churches and states; and sometimes towards kings themselves, like the imaginary personages in *Æschylus*, binding *Hercules* himself to a rock.

‘ Here, however, readers may be reminded of a favourite opinion with some, that a Pope’s Bull was essential to the foundation of an university, an idea that is countenanced by a Bull in this volume, p. 71., (of which more in its proper place,) and the allowed usage of the Roman Pontiff: and I recollect there was a memorable dispute between two learned bodies in Scotland, the University and King’s College, and the Mareschal College, Aberdeen. On perusing at King’s College, some years ago, the Pope’s Bull, relating to its original foundation, it was suggested to me by a gentleman, that the Academia of the Old Town, having the sanction of a Pope’s Bull, was an University; but, that the Mareschal, in the New, having no Bull, could be only a College: and this seems to be the purport of a passage, which occurs in the course of a dispute, where, after mention made of the Mareschal University, in the New Town, it is added, “if it be a University:” though this Bull, of 1494, in favour of the Old Town, was preceded by the King’s request, nor was it erected into a city and University, with the proper privileges, till 1498, by King James IV. However, be these matters as they may, and without sifting too nicely into the language and opinions of those times, we see by the order of Edward III., introduced in the course of this volume, how these Bulls were understood in England, in his time, when put in competition with the King’s constitutional and ancient claims.’

Nearly ten pages are consumed in establishing, we mean in unsettling, one of the clearest points in history, — that the papal usurpations to the time of Henry VIII. were at one time triumphant, and at another repressed through the spirit and policy of our kings; and that both the Universities were naturally the arenæ on which the conflict took place. That the author, however, bestowed *any* time on the pretended charter of King Arthur, which has been only preserved as an ingenious forgery, is equally ludicrous and surprizing. To such a writer, King Arthur himself would naturally be a treasure, for he furnishes him with the means of eking out a page or two by agitating the question of his existence. Neither William of Malmesbury nor Nennius, nor a cart-load of chronicles, can determine that question. Philosophical writers, therefore, have preserved a wise neutrality on a subject which no authentic monument illustrates; and every school-boy knows that, if such a prince did exist, he belonged to the fabulous and heroic period of our nation, which has afforded ample matter to poetry but communicated none to history. Whether he was of British or Roman origin, born in Britain or a native of Armorica, has never yet been settled. All that is known of him is that he opposed the Saxons with equal virtue and success: but these exploits appear only in the darkened theatre of romance, amid enchanters, giants, and the most extravagant images which superstition and poetry ever conjured up, to feed the credulity of an uninstructed people. The same observations will apply to Mr. Dyer's superfluous gossip concerning the next charter, viz. of Cadwallader, King of the West Saxons.

Having dismissed the early charters, the author considers the bulls of Pope Honorius, and hints to us that his remarks on the bull of Pope Sergius I. *will be given at the end of vol. ii.*; an additional proof of Mr. D.'s genius for arrangement. We are inclined to believe, however, that he has forgotten poor Sergius altogether; for at the end of the second volume we do not find any mention of him, unless it has escaped our search: a circumstance which, in such a heterogeneous mass, and without the aid of an index, is indeed not improbable. Mr. D. then proceeds to give a *short* account of Hare, and Parris, the persons to whom he is indebted for the collection of statutes and charters in the first volume: but we think that these worthies would have been more appropriately noticed in the History of Cambridge, and that they have no business in a book written specifically on the privileges of the learned body to which they belonged. While he was engaged on the subject of Cambridge antiquaries, we are astonished that

Mr. D. has taken no notice of Baker, the learned Fellow of St. John's; who formed in his own hand-writing a collection of twenty-one folio volumes, consisting of instruments and deeds relative to the University; and which, being part of the Harleian MSS., are deposited in the British Museum.

We now arrive at a very important part of the work, namely, 'the uses to which the present collection may be made subservient;' and we read the whole passage with great attention, feeling much curiosity to see how the author would prove the utility of the merest mass of lumber which has at any time come under our animadversion, since the institution of our labors in 1749. We insert this series of assertions, with this remark only; — that if the work had attained half or even one of the ends which are thus enumerated, it would have been a valuable collection, and, however tedious might be the task of perusing it, we should have strongly recommended it.

'I now proceed, in order, to say a word or two on the uses to which the present collection may be made subservient: and here I shall be the more brief, because readers can best judge of such matters for themselves; and because, indeed, I have already dropped a few hints on the subject: for, to speak truly, before I prevailed on myself to attempt the Latin Dissertation prefixed to this volume, I had proposed to make the present Dissertation serve that purpose.

'So speaking very generally, and with due submission to better judgments, I may be permitted, perhaps, to say, that it may be of value (as I have before hinted) in authenticating matters of Cambridge history; and, in this point of view, it may be a very useful directory and guide, more authentic, certainly, and enlarged, than any we possess. It cannot fail, too, I think, of being useful to University-gentlemen in their several official capacities; nor less so to students, in making them well acquainted with the rites, customs, and duties, appertaining to their several situations. In gentlemen, formerly resident at Cambridge (though now at a distance), it may awaken remembrances, not unpleasant, of former times, and of controversies, though not to be forgotten, yet now at rest; and if possessed of a fondness for antiquities, it may often assist their inquiries. To some it may be the means of answering doubtful questions on the spot, and, perhaps, of preventing hazardous or tedious altercations, and expensive processes: to others, who have no immediate interest in our Universities, nor any relation to them, (for such institutions must, from their very nature, excite a portion of public interest,) it may afford amusement, though it were such only as may be excited by curiosity. Nor am I prepared to say that such a work may not have both a religious and political use. For should the time ever come, (and what has happened may happen again,) that these institutions should be thought susceptible of improvement, it may be useful to

have before the eyes a model of the whole building; and I am not aware (I may speak without the suspicion of vanity where I have no share in the execution) that reformers and legislators will be able to find a more perfect one than that now before them. But let others judge of this. For myself, as Erasmus used to say, he had not the spirit of a martyr, neither have I, to speak in a humbler tone, that of a reformer; and I have performed all that some sense of duty seemed to impose on me, in printing these materials, whether for information or for direction, — for amusement or for thought. And at all events, to those who possess my *History of Cambridge*, the chronological tables will afford the means of ascertaining *dates*, which form the joints and strength of history.

‘As to my little zeal about reformation, this has been expressed, not from a belief that some principles are not more favourable to virtue and human happiness than others, or that I am indifferent to them, but through ignorance of the means, and from a deficiency of power. Under such circumstances, feeble, fruitless wishes may be the very hectic of folly; making brick without straw, or fishing in troubled waters without either hook or bait. The wish, however, of many good men I may be permitted to repeat: May nothing ever *rest* on our Universities that is unfavourable to liberty, which is synonymous with virtue and true happiness!

‘It is not necessary for an editor to avow his approbation or disapprobation of all the particulars which he ventures to publish: it may suffice that they are a fair representation of facts, and that they elucidate a history which he wishes to authenticate.’

We have purposely omitted all notice of the second volume, except to intimate the reason for such omission; viz. that it contains nothing relative to the ‘*Privileges of Cambridge*,’ unless we so deem the piece of latinity called the *Dissertatio Generalis*; a great part of which is only a repetition, in tolerably good Latin, of what had been before expressed in very mean English. The rest of the volume is occupied with a long correction of the errors of the “*History of Cambridge*,” (which formerly came under our cognizance,) a copious series of annotations by way of supplement to it, a dissertation on the rise and progress of printing at Cambridge, and (will it be believed?) a paper by Baron Maseres on *Negative Quantities*. In every sense this is truly inappropriate: for Mr. Dyer’s *quantities* are certainly not *negative*. At the end, also, we are indulged with a collection of *Ana*, formerly published by the author in a Magazine, and here kindly introduced to relax the readers of his more abstruse matter by something intended to be risible. Yet this is by far the best part of the work, for it contains several literary anecdotes, though many of them are mutilated and ascribed to wrong parties.

We

We would not have any of our preceding remarks interpreted as disparaging works written in illustration of the most antient of our two Universities; and a book written on Cambridge after the plan of Wood, but not the manner, we should hail with exultation. Mr. Dyer somewhere hints at his having thoughts of undertaking it: but we beseech him to desist, for the volumes on which we have been adverting are a laborious monument of his total inaptitude for it. The *Athene Cantabrigienses* will require equal judgment, industry, and learning; and, if carefully executed, they would constitute a most invaluable portion of literary history. Materials are not wanting: for Cole, Baker, Parris, Masters, the University-histories, and those of Colleges, the greater part of which are still unpublished MSS., would supply abundant resources to the compiler. If from these a judicious selection were made, and the due medium observed between mere unauthentic gossiping and a dry barren catalogue, the work would receive, we doubt not, the warmest encouragement.

With respect to the tone in which we have deemed it our duty to remark on Mr. Dyer's volumes, the excellent and honest author himself will be the first to acknowledge its justice; — for he has expressly admitted all the faults which we have pointed out, and no small part of his own dissertations consists in apologies for having committed them.

“*Habes confiteum reum!*”

ART. IV. *Essay on Criminal Laws*, by Andrew Green, LL. B. 12mo. pp. 102. Printed at Cockermouth, and sold in London by Richardson.

IN an unpretending form, and issuing from a place little known to the metropolis, we are here presented with a sensible treatise on an important subject; and we offer our apologies to its author for having, in the pressure of periodical matter, been obliged for a season to disregard it. The topic of criminal jurisprudence, however, is never out of date: its principles are fixed and immovable; and it is only by a reference occasionally to those principles, that the anomalies and errors of its practical administration can be corrected. A consideration, too, so intimately and perpetually blended with all the affairs of life, and influencing so immediately the happiness and repose of human society, cannot be too often recalled to our attention: nor is there perhaps any science of positive application, which full and repeated discussion has of late years more perceptibly contributed to advance than

that of penal judicature. It may be, indeed, concisely stated to be the art of finding judicial truth; and it is obvious that, the more familiar we are made with the media through which that result is to be obtained, and the more frequently we bring it back to first principles, of which in all systems of daily operation we are so apt to lose sight, the more certain we shall become of arriving at its true and legitimate end.

Mr. Green writes well, and reasons accurately. Yet we must differ from some of his conclusions, and particularly from many of his positions relating to evidence. He thinks that much of the evidence which is now excluded might often prove useful, and might be safely admitted, provided that the jury were acquainted with the objections to it; and among those for whose testimony he contends, subject to such objections, are persons who have been convicted and punished for certain offences, which render them infamous and incapable of bearing witness. We suspect much fallacy in this kind of reasoning. It is true that, in some cases, the testimony would be useful, and a criminal may sometimes escape from the want of it:—but, if that evidence be liable to an objection, as Mr. Green himself admits, and the jury be still allowed to receive it, of what use is the objection? If the witness be credited, and influences the jury in their decision, it is clear that the distinction between objectionable and unobjectionable testimony is so far destroyed. It is a contradiction to declare that certain witnesses are exceptionable, and at the same time to admit their testimony. As far as they are received, either in aid of other evidence or by themselves, are they not placed on a par with the purest and most unsuspected testimony which could be offered?

If it were the policy of our law in all cases to convict, and to this predominant object all other considerations of expediency or propriety were to bend, it would follow that no particle of testimony which tends to that result ought to be rejected:—but it is the beauty of our legal system that a constant homage is paid to general rules, even though in particular instances they may work inconvenience and mischief. Those few particular cases are not suffered to outweigh the permanent good which results from an undeviating observance of the rule. That innocence should not be put in jeopardy, or life and character hazarded, on the asseveration of persons of recorded infamy, is the sacred law of justice and reason; and that a person really guilty may sometimes evade the law, in default of such evidence, is a rare and occasional exception, to which the rule ought not to be sacrificed. Nor is Mr. Green's reasoning strengthened by the well known practice of admit-

admitting the evidence of an accomplice. When it is recollected that the exclusion of that evidence, in a great variety of cases, must, *ex necessitate rei*, defeat the ends of justice, because secret and deep-laid crimes could not be brought to light without the testimony of a party concerned, — supported indeed by other proofs, which, however, would be defective without him, — how frequent and constant is the recurrence of those cases, and how much also the practice tends to prevent the success of such conspiracies by infusing suspicion and fear into all who accede to them, — the rule in question will be found to rest on a much wider induction than that for which Mr. Green contends. On the other hand, how rarely does it occur that a case requires the testimony of persons convicted of infamous offences? In our law, few are the offences which are called infamous; and very seldom, therefore, is the supposed inconvenience likely to be experienced. If it should happen, as it occasionally may, that the witness thus disqualified has been convicted on doubtful evidence, or that there is so much as a bare probability of his innocence, his restoration to credibility is effected by the royal pardon; and it is not a very unusual thing for such a pardon to pass the great seal for the express purpose of rendering him competent. Moreover, this is not the only point of view in which the question of making competent witnesses of persons convicted of infamous offences is to be considered: their exclusion was intended by the law as a part of their punishment; — a brand of disgrace to separate them from the society of mankind, by the forfeiture of one of its most momentous privileges.

With regard to Atheists, or persons professing a disbelief in the being of a God, (if any such persons exist,) as it is evident that no kind of oath can be binding on their consciences, and as our judicial oaths are administered under the sanction of the Gospel, the same reasonings will hold. Atheistical witnesses may be excluded by a general rule, without much practical inconvenience; and though we agree with Mr. Green that it may happen that, when a person boldly professes so obvious and unpopular a tenet, it is a proof that he feels some kind of obligation to tell the truth, yet the case must be of too rare and extraordinary a kind to affect the validity of the general doctrine. Laws must operate on the greater number of cases to which they bear reference, and not on a few insulated exceptions or anomalies.

Another innovation is proposed by Mr. Green, to which we object with all our might; — we mean, that of deducing proofs against the prisoner from his own mouth. On this subject,

subject, lest we should misrepresent him, he shall himself be heard.

‘ There yet remains to be considered among the rules of evidence one which is commonly esteemed of great benefit, and which seems to obtain a more general concurrence of opinions in its favor than perhaps any other, I mean that rule by which any examination of the prisoner himself during his trial is prohibited. It has been usual to boast of this rule, as affording a particular proof of the superior humanity of the English laws, and on this account it is the more necessary to endeavor to investigate thoroughly what are its real effects, and how far it tends to promote or obstruct the administration of justice. The great advantages ascribed to it appear to be in some respects at least very doubtful.

‘ This rule, it must be observed, is not likely ever to be of any advantage to the innocent. If the prisoner be really innocent he can suffer no harm by answering any questions that may relate to the subject of his trial. It is probable, indeed, that the having such questions put to him may be greatly to his advantage, because he would thus have an opportunity, by his answers, of explaining whatever circumstances might appear to be against him, with much more ease to himself, and probably more satisfactorily, than he could do by making a formal speech, which is the only method now permitted to him. He might thus, instead of injury, derive an important benefit from his own examination.

‘ It may be worth considering, how we naturally proceed in investigating a fault committed by a child, or a servant, or by any one under our direction. We are most naturally led to question himself, and to compare his answers with such proofs as appear against him. If he prevaricates, or if he refuses to answer at all, the presumption goes to strengthen the proofs of his guilt; but if, on the contrary, his answers be candid and satisfactory, they as justly raise a presumption in his favor. This seems to be the natural mode of investigation that would be adopted for the discovery of the truth, and certainly it would not be felt as harsh or unreasonable towards the person accused. It must be admitted, indeed, that there is a considerable difference between such a case, and that of a trial before a public tribunal: yet even giving every allowance for this difference, there is something in the mode of investigation that may appear applicable to both. In both cases the great object is to find out the truth, and to inflict no punishment until the guilt is satisfactorily proved.

‘ Putting the question to a prisoner is, in the language of the law, associated with the idea of using torture. It is the delicate term by which the application of torture is technically expressed. Perhaps it is owing to this circumstance that the very mention of questioning a prisoner is held in such abhorrence, and that the humanity of the law has been so much extolled for prohibiting such a practice. It was not unnatural to confound the thing with the name; and after being accustomed to understand by the term

of questioning a prisoner, not the simple asking of a question, but the barbarous practice really intended by the phrase, it is not to be wondered that the public should hold the mention of it as odious; and it might well be expected, that from this circumstance a strong prejudice should exist against it. Before we proceed in the consideration of the subject, it is proper to clear it wholly of this ambiguity, and to disconnect the matter from every idea of torture.

The repugnance that has been felt against subjecting a prisoner during his trial to any examination, together with the sense of justice requiring that he actually should undergo some examination, either to afford him an opportunity of exculpating himself, or as the means of elucidating the truth, have probably led to the present practice by which these opposite difficulties are in some measure compromised. The examination taken before the magistrate, by whom the prisoner has been committed, being reduced to writing, may be read at his trial before the jury, and in this way the purpose of examining himself is in some degree, though but imperfectly, effected. If the examination of all the witnesses were in the same manner taken before a magistrate, and only afterwards read at the trial, it is easy to conceive how deficient such a mode of proceeding would be, in comparison with the present mode of having every witness examined in the presence of the jury who are to decide upon the value of the evidence. In some degree, though perhaps not to the whole extent, a similar difference must prevail between the effect of merely reading over a previous examination of the prisoner, and letting the jury themselves hear an examination taken in their own presence. Let the prisoner be subjected to no more compulsion at such examination, than at his previous one before the magistrate. Let him be at liberty to answer, or to refuse to answer; any questions as he thinks fit. If he should refuse to answer, the jury would form such presumption from his silence as the circumstances would warrant. They would not always be right indeed in presuming silence to be an acknowledgment of guilt, but they would not always do so. They would use their judgment on the particular circumstances of the case; and the silence, or the cunning, or the simplicity of the prisoner, would be duly valued. An immediate examination must at any rate afford better means of coming at the truth than a written deposition. The comparison of the two would also in many cases be useful. The examination might explain many circumstances which the deposition had left imperfect, and this again would check any new invented falsehood that might be attempted at the proposed examination. Every circumstance assists a jury in drawing their conclusion, and every circumstance is generally found to be estimated by them very correctly at what is due. It can never be a means of promoting truth to shut the jury out from any source of information; and to hold that any thing that can bear upon the question is either too insignificant, or too doubtful, or for any reason unfit, to be trusted to them. To suppose that a jury are unfit to be trusted

trusted to hear the examination of a prisoner, and to form a judgment of what may be inferred from his candor, or from his silence, or from his equivocation, or from whatever else may occur, is to suppose them unfit to judge of any difficult piece of evidence, and of course unfit for the duty imposed on them. It would not probably be found a more difficult piece of evidence than many other pieces on which they have to decide. It is not considered as too difficult a piece of evidence for the magistrate by whom the prisoner is committed; and surely a jury, having the benefit, as on a trial they always have, of the assistance of a professional Judge, would not be less competent to the task.'

If the author had seen this engine of extorting truth actually at work, as it is at this moment in every criminal court through France, he would revolt at his own doctrine. Happily, however, the advantages of the practice have never been established to the conviction of any intelligent mind; and we are sorry that, in this instance, the subtleties of Jeremy Bentham * have for a moment misled so sober and practical an understanding as that of Mr. Green. Of the former, it is one among the ingenious and visionary theories to which, by the laborious process of attempting to persuade others, he found it no difficult matter to become himself a proselyte:—but Mr. Bentham sometimes deems man, and his nature, and his sufferings, of little or no account in his experiments, and considers human beings no more than the philosopher regards some unfortunate little animal in his air-pump. Not so his enlightened commentator, Dumont; who has recorded his almost indignant protestation against the doctrine.

The error of those who defend such a monstrous procedure is this; that, according to their reasoning, criminal jurisprudence has no other purpose than that of obtaining the truth: but truth itself is purchased too dearly when it is obtained at the expence of justice, or of that humanity which is a part of justice. The object of the rack was to extort the truth, and in many instances, no doubt, truth *was* extorted from the quivering lips of the culprit. In like manner, the judicial interrogation of the prisoner is often attended with similar success: but the means by which it is attained counterbalance the advantage. What an unseemly spectacle is that of a Judge, irritated by the evasions or obstinacy of the accused party, seeking to entrap him into contradictions, puzzling him with sudden and unexpected questions, and carrying on, in short, an intellectual combat with a poor trembling wretch

* *Traité des Preuves Judiciaires, par M. Dumont. Cap. de l'Inculpation de soi même.*

sinking under the consciousness of guilt, or appalled by the apprehension of punishment? The object of the trial is not an acknowledgement of the crime, but the proof of it by facts. If the proof of it by the prisoner's own confession were indispensable to the conviction, we might almost tolerate the practice, though so repugnant to our feelings: but, as the case is, it seems perpetuated for little or no purpose but that of displaying the ingenuity of the presiding Judge. In fact, no conflict can be considered more unequal. On one side, the confidence inspired by authority, the absence of all perturbation, and the practised subtlety of a man trained and educated to public examinations; on the other, an unhappy creature just emerging from the gloom of a dungeon, called to play the principal part on a theatre where a thousand eyes are directed to him, and frightened by the awful solemnities of justice: in such a state of mind, he is perplexed with insidious questions, which he therefore answers with hesitation and embarrassment; or he is seduced into contradictions, which are instantly interpreted into proofs of his guilt. In the mean while, the President has other advantages. The *procès d'instruction*, which is a preliminary but secret examination of the prisoner, reduced to writing, is before him; and, if the answers of the accused vary from those given to the *Juge d'instruction*, the jury are reminded of the contradiction, in terms which imply most unequivocally that the variance is an additional proof of guilt. Is it, therefore, surprizing that even innocence itself is sometimes driven into a labyrinth of contradictions, or seduced into answers equivalent to a confession; and these, too, extorted by an astute interrogator from a man ignorant perhaps of the very meaning of the questions proposed to him, and wholly unarmed against the effect which they produce?

What sophistry can recommend the adoption of a practice in England, which is abhorrent from the whole tenor and spirit of our judicature? Or what can be a more striking and gratifying contrast to the playing off this dreadful artillery on a poor criminal, who is naturally deserted by his faculties at the moment when he most needs them, than the humane admonition so often interposed by a British Judge, if merely an imprudent admission escapes the lips of the prisoner? Certainly, it is of high import to the community that crimes should be detected: but society never receives a deeper wound than when its public institutions are at variance with justice and humanity. We reprobate, therefore, with M. Cottu, M. Dupin, and M. Beranger, — we might add, with all the enlightened jurists of France, — the barbarous practice which

Mr. Green

Mr. Green has recommended to our imitation; — a practice which renders crime a double curse, — first, in the social injury resulting from its perpetration, — next, in the savage and unnatural means employed for its detection. As to the analogy suggested by Mr. Green, between the practice on which we have been speaking and the examination of prisoners reduced to writing, by the statute of 2 & 3 Ph. & M. c. 10. (this, we presume, being the statute to which he refers,) the object of that provision was in favour of the accused person. The magistrate is directed to take in writing the examination of the prisoner, and the information of those who bring him; in order that if, says Blackstone*, “upon this inquiry it manifestly appears that either no such crime was committed, or that the suspicion entertained of the prisoner was wholly groundless,” he may be completely discharged. The examination of the prisoner, however, is entirely optional on his part. “*Nemo tenetur prodere seipsum* ;” and, if he chooses, he may remain totally silent. If, however, his own account, compared with that of those who bring him before the magistrate, shews that no such crime has been committed, or makes out his own innocence, the magistrate is empowered to set him at liberty.

We have been led into this length of remark on a tract of which the size alone will hardly justify it, because sound doctrines of penal law are vitally important, and some of the suggestions of Mr. Green are at variance with the primary principles both of natural and positive jurisprudence. He is also an apologist for capital punishments; and probably on another occasion we may advert to his opinions, and state our own. At present, we must close our observations; recommending his little work as in many respects a pleasing and well written essay, and conceding to the author the praise of ingenuity, even in points on which we most strongly dissent from his reasonings.

ART. V. *The Siege of Jerusalem*: a Poem. By Charles Peers, Esq. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Murray. 1824.

AMID the myriads of poetasters who, like the gnats that buzzed about Spenser's shepherd, are perpetually fretting and annoying us; whose mannerism and affectation have often tempted us to execrate the whole sisterhood of the muses; and whose swarms are so countless, that we have scarcely a noun or an image of multitude to describe them; — amid these mul-

* Commentaries, vol. iv. p. 296. Christian's edition.

tiplied abortions of misdirected ambition or misapplied industry, we were agreeably surprized to find on our table a poem of unequivocal and real merit. The production of Mr. Peers is indeed poetical, both in its form and its subject; and it is associated in our bosoms with themes of high and celestial import: its unfabled incidents interesting us not through the spell of fiction, or the illusions of fancy, but by the sacred potency of Divine truth. It has all that there is in romance to move us, added to the charm of incontestable history; we peruse its story not only with the most eager and delighted curiosity, but we fly to it in the midst of our inquietudes and ills; the soul loves to repose there as in her chosen sanctuary. *Χῶρος μὲν ἱερός πᾶς ὁδ' ἐστὶ.*

Considered also as a remarkable fulfilment of the prophecy of our Lord, and an example of one of the most awful vicissitudes in the annals of human affairs, what subject could have been better selected for poetic narrative than the memorable siege of Jerusalem? It is not surprizing, therefore, that it has been seized by two of our recent poets, each capable of adorning whatever he selected, and of clothing the most sacred or dignified story with an appropriate and adequate diction: but the dramatic poem of Mr. Milman, equally replete with epic and lyrical beauties, is in structure and form so different from the narrative poem of Mr. Peers, that they may be said to have nothing in common except their subject. It would therefore be invidious to compare them.

The first book opens with an introduction, in the manner, though we cannot say altogether in the spirit, of Milton. The Roman army under Titus approaches: but the composition and order of march might, we think, have as well been omitted: for it has all the prolixity of an Homeric catalogue, with little of that simplicity and nature which cause us to take delight even in a list of ships when we peruse the father of poetry. A civil war breaks out between the factions of John of Giscala and Simon, and the book ends with an unsuccessful sally from the Mount of Olives. The site of the holy city, its strength, and its inaccessible fortress, so energetically described by a stroke of the pen of Tacitus, "*Templum in modum arcis, proprieque muri, labore et opere ante alios: ipse porticus, quibus templum ambiebatur, egregium propugnaculum,*" (Hist. v.12.) form a striking feature.

‘ Her awful site
Seem'd as a double mount sublime, whose brow,
By subterranean struggles torn apart,
Gave verge and amplitude to fix the base
Of two fair cities; though for eminence

Not

Not equal, yet the least a glorious seat
 For kings to build on. The circumference
 Of their huge sides, if art had lent no aid,
 Almost might mock all effort for assault;
 How much the rather, thrice begirt with walls
 That seem'd of substance with the living rock,
 So vast their thickness, altitude, and strength!
 Northward alone, where those colossal heights
 Sloped less abrupt and imminent, they seem'd
 Not inaccessible to breach or storm;
 Yet there with peril; there, to leave no place
 For onset, art had lavish'd all its strength;
 Gates, ramparts, battlements, and towers, whose height
 Evinced his bold ambition, who, erewhile
 Striving for mastery with th' enchain'd surge
 At Cæsarea, sunk the massive mole,
 Where his moor'd navies rode secure from storm,
 In their calm anchorage.

If Mr. Peers had consulted D'Anville's treatise *Sur l'Antienne Jerusalem*, or the *Preparationes Evangelicæ* of Eusebius, he would hardly have found room enough, in the circuit of three English miles, for two kings to build two 'glorious' cities. - In such a description, the aid of poetic amplitude is in our opinion unbecoming.

The second book begins with the religious commemoration of the Passover, and the following part of the description is beautiful:

‘ Soon as Lucifer,
 Son of the morning, (like a herald sent
 To sound the march of some great conqueror,)
 Pour'd his pale tremulous lustre o'er the peaks
 Of eastmost Abarim, a nascent sound
 Of joy and gratulation through the crowd
 Spread universal. Glorious shows the dawn
 Of day's bright orb, e'en in the utmost isles
 Where, half askance, through the thick vaporous air
 He shoots a feeble or discolour'd beam.
 But there, where fresh and vigorous from his couch
 Beyond the East he springs, to renovate
 His wide dominion, heav'n's unclouded vault
 Reflects his orient lustre with a blaze
 More gorgeous, glowing, and insufferable,
 Than the pale North, and her chill climes e'er knew.
 Well might the Sabian own thee, sacred source
 Of life and joy, great Mithras, oft invoked,
 And fittier than the bright Astarte, queen
 Of the starr'd firmament, by Sidon's sons
 Nightly adored — thee, whose magnetic beam
 Awakes creation to its sweetest smile
 Of new-born splendor, harmony, and bliss.

‘ Now

‘ Now changed the sombre canopy of night
Through pale to purple, and the livelier tint
Of warm carnation, fringed with living gold;
Till o’er the horizon the resplendent orb
In one full flood of glory shone revealed.
Heard’st thou not, far Gilboah, — heard’st thou not,
Envious Gerizim, when, in unison
Of twice ten thousand voices, rose the song
Of joy and jubilee? — “ Praise on the harp,
Cymbal, or whatso’er may please His ear,
Of softer strain symphonious, lute or voice,
Praise to the great Avenger! to the Highest,
Hosannah ! ” — Short their strain, and, after pause
Of awful silence, with unsandalled feet,
And eyes to heav’n upraised, th’ arch-pontiff pour’d
His adoration. “ Sacred evermore,
Sacred to God, the sabbath of his rest !
Thrice sacred this wherein we celebrate
Our nation’s rescue ! Father ! at that hour
Of their affliction and calamity
Thou didst not leave thy people : — Strike again !
Strike yet again for Israel, as of yore,
And deal thy vengeance on the heathen foe ! ”

The service is interrupted by John of Giscala, who obtains possession of the Temple, and the book ends with preparations for the siege. The commencement of the Roman operations is vigorously narrated.

‘ And now the work of havoc first commenced,
With axe and fire, to clear an ample field
For the dread engines and machinery.
Loud was the crash of woods, whose giant heads,
Beneath their ceaseless and unsparing stroke,
Bow’d prostrate ; — spreading oak and sycamore,
Cedar of Libanus, and mountain-pine,
Cypress of mournful green, whose spiry shaft
Rose in mild contrast with umbrageous elms, —
The growth of ages, in a day laid low !
Alas for those, that oft, at sultry noon,
Or sweeter fall of eve, were wont, erewhile,
To seek for refuge from the popular throng,
Garden or grove suburban, — to inhale
Th’ untainted breeze, — to list the chant of birds
Melodious, — or by Siloa’s wood-fringed sides
To roam contemplative, — perchance inclined
For lighter sports, to carol songs of joy,
And hear and breathe th’ impassioned vow of love !
They never more, at sultry noon, or fall
Of evening hour, still sweeter, now must seek
Garden or grove suburban, — nor inhale

Th' untainted breeze, — nor list the chant of birds;
 No more, by Siloa's wood-fringed sides, indulge
 Calm contemplation, — carol songs of joy,
 Or hear or breathe th' ~~impassion'd~~ vow of love!
 Hang up the harp and weep! thine hour is come, —
 Daughter of Sion, weep! the enemy
 Hath cast his trench around thee; and thy joys,
 Thy sports, thy mirth, thy music all are fled!
 Oft wilt thou strain thy dim and tearful gaze
 O'er the red field, and fondly ask, like her
 Who mourn'd of old for her young Siserah,
 Wherefore the neighing steed, the well-known step
 Of parent, son, or bridegroom's dearer name,
 Returns not? climb thy rampart and behold
 How, all around, innumerable foes
 Prepare the ruin which shall soon o'erwhelm
 Thyself and kindred in one general doom!
 ' Fast speeds the work of armies when they toil
 For fame or vengeance: scarce a few short days,
 And all from Scopus, to the sepulchre
 Where Herod, by Bethora's silver lake,
 Lay proudly tomb'd, — a fair and fruitful scene, —
 A few short days, and all was chang'd around
 To empty desolation: pleasant fields,
 Each fair variety of vale and hill,
 Gardens, where Sibmah's vine and Sharon's rose
 Shed fragrance; — haunts of God and angel-guest, —
 Laid bare and levell'd for the march of war!

In book iii. a truce takes place between the rebel chiefs; and the Judæans, being repulsed after an ineffectual attempt to destroy the besieging engines, retreat into the city. Mr. Peers has enlivened the historical parts of his subject by fictitious circumstances; and among these episodic descriptions is a Jewish wedding, which is a considerable and seasonable relief from the monotonous and unbroken accents of war. It is what in the language of painters is called *repose*.

' The morrow dawns; the bridal friends are met;
 The bridal bond is seal'd; the nuptial dower
 Changed, as was wont; while sad Matthias breathes
 A father's benison: — "The dew of Heaven
 Drop on thy couch, my daughter, for increase!
 The God of Isaac and Rebecca bless
 Thy wedded love; and give thee to behold
 Thy children's children, and the land in peace!"
 ' And, like Rebecca, in her beauty, she
 Stands, veil'd the while, in all her costliest trim
 Gorgeously deck'd: her arms with bracelets bound,
 Her neck with gems in radiant circle set,
 Her dark hair garlanded with vernal flowers;

While virgin handmaids, hymning marriage-songs,
Lead to the frugal board; and mirth and dance
Banish awhile the memory and the dread
Of deepening danger; till the closing hour,
When, with bright burnish'd lamps, the kindred train
Guide to the chamber, where a joyful spouse
Awaits her, chanting benediction sweet.

The fourth book makes no progress in the siege: but pestilence breaks out within the walls. Mr. Peers's description is taken from the account of the plague of Athens by Thucydides, and from that of Lucretius, who has nearly translated Thucydides. We should be unjust towards the poet, and unfaithful to our own feelings, were we to omit the passage entirely.

‘Forthwith, as its taint
Possess'd the frame, a keen and caustic heat
Through every pulse, quick shooting from the brain,
Fired every sinew, throb'd in every nerve.
Shiverings anon ensued, convulsive throes,
Heart palpitations, freezing cold and heat
In sad vicissitude: the changeful cheek
With glowing hectic flush'd, or blanch'd with the hue
Of livid pale; whilst each red eyeball, strain'd
Almost to bursting, darted eloquent proof
Of such keen torment as the laboring tongue
Strove to express, but found no utterance.
These, as if life would pass with every sigh,
Struggled for breath, drawn hardly and with pain:
With frequent, quick, irregular snatches, those.
Nor couch of luxury, nor pallet poor,
(More soothing oft) could lend its aid to sleep:
The livelong hours in agony they lay,
Of morn impatient, then again of night;
If chance its wonted gloom and lassitude
Might bring that sleep to their desiring eyes
Which day's gay beam denied, — yet, but that pain
Lengthen'd each hour to years, not long their doom
To sigh or suffer: to the few whose strength
Struggled thus far, the seventh sad morn at last
Brought death's dire blessing: — meanwhile raging thirst
Insatiable (as the swell'd throat refused
Liquidest aliment) afflicted more
Than gnawing hunger, — might they with one draught
But cool their palate! once in the pure wave
Plunge their hot limbs! despite of bane or death
They reck'd not — woe the while!’

Who will deny great beauty to some of the following lines?

‘Yet where affection, unappall'd and firm,
Held to the last, what anguish in the thought

To the sick sufferer, that its zeal should reap
 Such bitter recompense! to squander hope,
 Health, safety, life, in unavailing toil,
 And suck pollution from the lips it loved!
 Then might be seen all sights of agony:
 Wives disespoused, that round th' unconscious clay
 Of some cold corpse, with doting fondness clung;
 Mothers, bereaved of children, in despair
 Beating their bosoms, — whilst in every street,
 From every dwelling, sounds of woe and wail
 Loud, shrill, and terrible, appall'd the ear:
 Or, more intense and eloquent, that grief
 Which spoke not; but, with fix'd, unwater'd eye,
 Gazed on its dead, as though the fount of tears
 Were spent with weeping; some there were who sat
 With eyes wide stretch'd and fix'd on vacancy,
 As if the senses of the soul could ken
 Visible forms: — others who stood at once
 Stiffen'd to marble; the blood's current frozen
 Through the heart's misery — sad proof, though rare,
 That e'en the anguish of a festering grief
 May rival sickness in the work of death.
 Yet were there many who mourn'd not at the breach
 Of tenderest ties, but envied those who 'scaped
 To their last refuge in the quiet grave.'

In book the sixth, the prodigies announce the destruction
 of Jerusalem. We cite a passage of very considerable power.

' For of no fiction now is need to sing, —
 Of hell-born spirits warring round the wall, —
 Of magic spells, — the dear idolatry
 Of nations wakening from their Gothic trance,
 When the sweet minstrel struck th' Ausonian lyre
 To hallow'd chivalry and feats of arms, —
 Nor if a muse yet linger'd 'mid the bowers
 Of green Sorrento or the Tuscan vale,
 Should I invoke her aid; but rather call
 Those that in elder age, beside the marge
 Of streams once vocal to prophetic bards,
 Breathed inspiration, — for the city of God,
 E'en in her shame and ruin, claims the meed
 Of genuine verse; nor needs fond fancy's art
 To grace the authentic record of her fate.
 What should the fall of Paynim realm or chief
 Move the wide universe to mourn with man?
 Unheralded of nature's prodigies,
 Alike the mighty and the mean go down,
 To the dark valley of the shadow of death;
 And though the crash of rooted empires sound
 With louder horror, th' ever-circling spheres
 Still hold their course, in harmony and peace.

For thee alone, lost Sion, earth and heaven
 Swerved from their wonted order, to exalt
 Thy rising greatness, and foretell thy fall.
 Yet, — though the sun had stood in mid career
 At thy command, and th' ever onward foot
 Of Time moved back, — though the uncontrollable
 And mighty deep had own'd thy mightier sway,
 Ebb'd for thy safety, and flow'd for thy revenge —
 Yet, were no portents of thy palmyest age
 So strange and terrible, as those dread sights,
 And sounds unearthly, which at last confirm'd
 The dire prediction of thy martyr'd lord.
 Rumours of wars, and war with all its woes,
 Appall'd the nations ; from th' imperial strife
 Of rival chiefs whose fierce ambition ranged
 The world in battle, to those humbler feuds
 That shook Damascus, Ascalon, and Tyre.

We must speak also in high commendation of the funereal obsequies of the Romans who fell in the night-assault. — The seventh book contains little more than a sally of the besieged, — a beautiful picture of night in a besieged town, — and the state of the city and its inhabitants. — The eighth book relates the destruction of the Temple ; over which, in fulfilment of the prophecy, the plough-share was so soon to be passed as a sign of perpetual interdiction. Here the fancy of the poet revels in gorgeous description.

The sides were cedar, — all the giant growth
 Of Libanus, — o'erlaid with gold, emboss'd
 With rarest sculpture ; and the pavement wrought
 Of purest marble ; from the roof, alike
 Fretted with gold, rich tapestry wrought in looms
 Of Persia, hung, to veil the sanctuary,
 Brodered in various colours, which express'd
 Mysterious meaning : yet that awful guard
 Check'd not the prince of Rome, who dared explore
 The silent secrets of the shrine within ;
 And found its wonders yet excelling all
 Fancy had feign'd ; refulgent still with gold,
 To such perfection wrought, the artifice
 Surpass'd the rare material. — Cherubim,
 Breathing beatitude and beauty, spread
 Their ample wings to shade the golden throne
 Of the Invisible, — all overlaid
 With precious gems, that shed a living ray
 Through that religious shade, erewhile illumed
 With brighter splendors and celestial fire.
 These, and much more, burst on th' imperial gaze ;
 But fast and fierce the hungry element
 Gan spread its ravage ; while the thrilling shrieks

Of those who fled, or still with perilous hope
 Disdaining flight, in vain essay'd to check
 The fiery havoc, bade avert his steps
 From sight and sounds so sad and pitiful.
 War seem'd the while on either part to cease,
 As nations stood forgetful or absorbed
 In awful contemplation or despair.
 First through the windows flash'd the raging flame,
 As the close rafters fed its rapid course
 Circuitous ; till the high pile seem'd wrapt
 In full combustion, — meanwhile shocks resounded
 Of falling planks and beams, — anon a crash,
 Loud as of near artillery, or the burst
 Of the echoing thunder-peal, when the wide roof
 Sunk instantaneous, covering all the mass
 Beneath its ample cope, — and then a smoke
 At every vent oozed forth, like the hot breath
 Of Solfaterra, mined by elements
 Of chemic war ; still thickening to a cloud
 Vast and voluminous, as what o'erspread
 Cumæ or Tænarus, the jaws of Hell.
 But when th' unprison'd and victorious fire
 Mastered its bounds, as with fresh aliment
 Renew'd, a bright unsullied column rose
 Upward to Heav'n, and lighted all the land :
 Spreading such fierce insufferable heat
 That none might dare approach, or dropp'd at once
 Death scorch'd ; and those, alas ! not few, who fell
 Thus miserably, all escape cut off
 By a triumphant and remorseless foe.
 Oh sight of woe, where multitudes, perplex'd
 By choice of dangers, sought retreat in vain ;
 Or in their Temple's conflagration deem'd
 'Twere better perish than survive its fall ;
 So with blind fury on the sacred flame
 Rush'd raving, proud upon that funeral pile
 To end their agony ! — upon the plain
 Of their late conflict, gash'd with festering wounds,
 Many all helpless, impotent to trail
 Their limbs, endured, perforce, the bitter sight :
 Yet, spite of suffering, as the tide of life
 Ebb'd gradually, and the increasing fire
 Through brazen harness with intenser heat
 Rack'd every joint, sigh'd out their souls in moan
 For their lov'd altars ; or with frantic cries,
 Raging 'gainst Heav'n and man, murmur'd such things
 As should be howl'd at midnight, far from haunts
 Of living foot, — and still they grasp'd the sword
 With strong convulsion, as in act of fight ;
 And still they raved of battle, and revenge

On the destroyer ; till the quivering lip
Stopp'd, and th' unsinew'd arm lay stiff in death. O

The ninth book contains the progress of the famine in the remaining part of the city ; the final assault ; the death of Simon ; the sack, and conflagration ; a retrospect, and some beautiful reflections on the past history and present state of Judæa. We have been so liberal of quotation, that we have not room even for the conclusion, which is solemn, dignified, and pathetic.

We need scarcely repeat our general opinion concerning this superior production. The versification is not indeed quite Miltonic, but the rhythm is easy, full, and swelling : the pauses, also, are sometimes too little varied : — but these are slight objections ; and we should not have hinted them, but from a strong desire to see so good a poem finished *ad unguem*. The erudition of Mr. Peers is discernible in every page ; and, considering what uneducated tribes, forsaking their humbler but allotted duties, daily and hourly rush uncalled and unwelcomed into the consecrated regions of poesy, we felt great delight in reading the composition of a learned and elegant scholar. The Siege of Jerusalem, with Mr. Milman's poem on the same subject, may be classed, not indeed in form, but in essence, — that is to say, in relation to the hallowed associations which it calls up, and the celestial atmosphere which it breathes around, — with the *Athalie* of Racine ; a poem which no one can read without feeling himself to be a better believer, perhaps a better man. We request, therefore, that Mr. Peers will accept our gratitude for his poem ; — not a formal stinted offering of gratitude, but in a heaped overflowing measure ; or, to use the eloquent words of the Apostle, μέτρον καλὸν, πεπιεσμένον, καὶ σεσαλευμένον, καὶ ὑπερεκ — χυνόμενον. (Luke, vi. 38.)

ART. VI. *Mementoes, Historical and Classical, of a Tour through Part of France, Switzerland, and Italy, in the Years 1821 and 1822* : including a Summary History of the Principal Cities, and of the most memorable Revolutions ; a Description of the famed Edifices and Works of Art, Ancient as well as Modern ; with an Account of some of the most striking Classic Fictions and Ceremonies ; and of such Relics still remaining [as still remain]. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1824.

WE cannot refrain from remarking that this is rather too high-sounding and ostentatious a title-page. It may scarcely be worth while to observe that, if the word *memento*, as naturalized in our language, may also be pluralized by the usual

usual addition of the letter *s*, this should be done without the interposition of the letter *e*: it should be *mementos*, not *mementoes*: but all that follows has too much of an air of parade, and the author's selection of a motto crowns the whole:—" *Quoniam diu vixisse denegatur, aliquid faciamus quo possimus ostendere nos vixisse.*" Is a tour to France and Italy, or the composition of a journal of such a tour, so great an achievement that it may be quoted in fulfilment of this maxim, and be deemed a passport to immortality?—Waiving these *preliminary ceremonies*, however, we are ready to allow that the writer appears to be a man of education and observation, possessed of good principles, and actuated by good feelings; and that his volumes may be read with pleasure and profit both by those who, having themselves visited the places which he describes, would not be displeased with a book that recalls their own reminiscences, and by those who, meditating a tour through the same countries, would be glad of an useful and not unamusing guide on their expedition.

Having arrived at Dieppe from Brighton, the traveller proceeded to Rouen: which city, and its magnificent environs, have been often depicted. The present author, however, does not render sufficient justice to its far-famed cathedral, and of the beautiful sister-edifice, St. Ouen, he does not say a word: yet every account of a visit to Rouen must be defective and unsatisfactory, which makes no mention of this very exquisite specimen of Norman architecture. St. Ouen was founded in the year 1118, but was not finished till the beginning of the sixteenth century. It sustained fortunately little damage during the Revolution, excepting the demolition of the Rood-loft. Nothing can exceed the lightness and purity of the building, or be more striking than its large circular windows, which constitute a remarkable feature in the ecclesiastical edifices of France; though in our own cathedrals they are comparatively small, and without variety. Those of St. Ouen are filled with painted glass of the most gorgeous colors; and one of them has a central ornament, which produces an admirable effect, the lengthened pentagon being a series of triangles. We have only pointed out one or two of the features of this fine specimen of architecture; and those of our readers who may be desirous of seeing it ought to lose no time, for we understand that the municipality of Rouen have lately revived the project, which they had meditated five years ago, of demolishing the fabric altogether, in order to enlarge the *Magazin d'Armes*. As in 1820 the church of St. Nicaise was levelled to the ground, and the cathedral of Avranches was sold

sold for 3000 francs, it is not likely that the beautiful pile of St. Ouen will be spared from any considerations of taste, or any admiration of beauty.

There can be nothing new in a description of Paris: but the following notice of the truly venerable M. Denon, whose kindness and attention to the English are above all praise, may not be uninteresting:

‘ To-day I have been introduced to Mons. Denon, the intrepid traveller, and celebrated illustrator of the arts and splendors of Egypt. Though distinguished from his early youth by the then monarchs of France, and holding the appointment of a *gentil-homme ordinaire du Roi*, both to Louis XV. and Louis XVI., yet it was during the reign of Bonaparte, and from his marked personal and particular regard for this artist, that he was raised to the post of Director-General of the French Museum, being also an officer of the Legion of Honour, a member of the Institute, and a Baron of the Empire. In the stormy period of the French Revolution, the knowledge of those arts which had been his amusement became his resource; the maturity and perfection of those talents gave to the world his work on Egypt, of which France may justly boast, and all who love the arts will ever reverence. This production, it may be remembered, was executed during the famous expedition of the French army into Egypt, whither Mons. Denon accompanied Napoleon at the Emperor’s express request. Grown old in the service of the arts, his collection may now rank as perhaps the most valuable private one in France. His pictures present some specimens of painting, through its various gradations, from the crude and laboured efforts of Giotto, to the finish of the present day. His medals comprise Grecian, Roman, and French: the latter, many of which were designed by himself, that splendid and memorable series illustrative of Bonaparte and his achievements. China of the oldest date, and antique value; with the exquisite specimens of modern Seve and Dresden,—portfolios of original designs, and drawings by the eminent masters, including Raphael, Guercino, Julio Romano, and Parmeggiano,—bronzes, sculpture, Egyptian idols, papyri, and mummies. In modern sculpture, I was much struck with a head of Bonaparte, of Canova’s execution; an admirable likeness still preserved, though not an immediate copy of the features, it being a head of ideal beauty, and god-like attributes. In the class of Egyptian antiquities is a female figure of about fifteen years of age, with the flesh still preserved; black, imperfect, and discoloured, but after a lapse of more than 3000 years; and there is also a female foot, found in the royal tombs of Egypt, and still in perfect preservation. This specimen of Egyptian beauty is thus described by Mons. Denon himself: “ *Le pied d’une jeune femme, d’une princesse, d’un être charmant, dont la chaussure n’avait jamais altéré les formes, et dont les formes étaient parfaites.*”

In

In the traveller's observations on French manners and character we perfectly accord.

' With respect to French manners or character, so far as my own observations extend, I do not think that to the English they are so complaisant or even so commonly civil as they used to be. When after the battle of Waterloo, and the first establishment of peace, the wealthy English came crowding to Paris, profuse of their money and regardless of expence, they were from political motives objects of respect, and from pecuniary considerations, &c. certain of meeting with distinction. But an English man or lady is now no longer a novelty: there are as many English in France for economy as dissipation:—from experience, they no longer suffer themselves to be surcharged and cheated; and with shame must it be added, that some French have suffered from the pre-meditated roguery of the English.

' National antipathies, stifled for a time, seem inclined to burst out on the least occasion; I sometimes hear the English called by the most opprobrious names on the slightest quarrel about price, or other trifle, or because they will not pay more than the French themselves.

' The English feel their position: they recollect that they conquered France: they know that their mediation chiefly saved Paris from destruction and fire; and that superiority which they feel they will occasionally show.

' With the fair sex, no man can quarrel, and I do think that the French women are *vraiment séduisantes*. In complexion, they are evidently inferior to their English rivals; neither for general beauty of face, and delicacy of expression, can they be commonly put in competition. To what then am I to attribute their irresistible modes of pleasing? To their very insinuating address, and very fascinating manners; to the extraordinary ease and vivacity they display in their intercourse with the other sex, arising from the unbounded freedom of mutual association, and the pleasure with which they court it;—to a pleasing and musical inflection of voice: to a *tournure* and *taille* always displayed to the extremest advantage: to which add the attractions of unrivalled black hair, and sparkling black eyes.

' In France intrigue prevails, it is said, in many a circle: I believe it, though this however is to be understood but to a certain extent. It would seem that the French, reverencing the sacred ties of marriage, and admitting how happy some few congenial hearts may be, thus bound, seek not to decry, or to shake, such hallowed institutions, further strengthened by such important politic and legislative bonds; but sensible at the same time how often with them these "silken strings" are felt as galling, slavish chains, and with what mutual good will each party would fain release the other: intrigue and gallantry are therefore pretty generally admissible, though never publicly avowed. Thus, according to their code, wedded love still is sacred; but where
Hymen's

Hymen's torch is extinguished by the vapours of mutual discontent, the flame for another object that may arise need not be smothered, but may burn, provided it glare not in open unshaded publicity. A wife is still a wife in all those duties and exterior *bienséance*, which her husband and society demand; nor is the finger of scorn pointed at the innocent children because their mother's frailty may be supposed or even known.

'Happy as the French are with this understood liberty from the smallest to the greatest licence, never, I think, will such a system prevail in England. There, marriage is still revered as the hope of youth, the happiness of manhood, the solace of age. Its comforts may be diminished, its joys may be embittered, but still and ever it must be inviolate! Affection may be chilled, but may yet revive in that heart which seeks not to rekindle its warmth in a foreign bosom!'

The author proceeded to Swisserland through Dijon, and bursts into raptures in the valley of Chamouni.

'With a *char à banc** to accommodate three, and with one mule, we set out from Sallanches for the valley of Chamouni;—it rained almost the entire way, giving but little opportunity to observe the savage scenery.—The valley itself is at the height of 3000 feet above the level of the Méditerranæan; nevertheless in the still higher acclivities that line the road, occasional plains of verdure are found: here flocks are reared, while amid them are two or three huts, containing at present nine people, who consent thus to live, totally cut off from society, a visit to the villages beneath being an occurrence but once in a few years; in winter they are buried in snows, and at no time have they any other food than the bread and cheese they can make, with the milk of their goats and cows.

'On the road, we diverged a little to view the cascade of Chade.—Nearly on the summit of the mountain, about 600 feet high, the waters issue in one broad stream: falling about thirty feet, the rock divides it into two; thence to the bottom the two torrents tumble headlong: yet winding with the rock, and dashed against many a projecting point, they continue to shower their silvery mists, till far below our feet they rolled peaceably along, and lost themselves in the windings of the vale.

'The existence of the valley of Chamouni was unknown to all but its own mountaineers till the year 1741, when it was first discovered and explored by our countrymen, Messrs. Pocock and Wyndham. Its little extent may be comprised in less than twenty miles of length, and less than one in breadth.—Enclosed on every side by the stupendous heights of Mont Blanc, the Breven, the Aiguilles Rouges, and lesser Glaciers, Winter here reigns, and holds his icy court from October to May; yet the meadows in

'* A *char à banc* is an oblong wooden form, suspended in a rude way; and is the only sort of vehicle practicable in these mountainous regions.'

their

their season are verdant and fertile, though in the midst of snows; and their honey is famed delicious.

‘ How singular the life of this hardy, isolated, simple mountain race! In their fleeting summer months, the intrepid natives gladly attend their foreign visitors in exploring fantastic frosty pyramids, and solid icy ramparts that tower in the liquid skies, and block up the depths below; performing feats that rival the intrepidity and agility of their native Chamois goat; while in their long winter, shut up amid their own community, they watch the deeper terrors of ice and snow, armed by the rigorous elements with tenfold power.

‘ Frost, which in our moderate clime, and generally, binds with its adamantine fetters all nature in inaction, stopping the roaring of the torrents, and the gurgling of the brook; — and snows that hide all the things upon the earth with a silvery mantle, and bring a creeping silence o’er all, till nothing is heard save their gently dropping, sliding sleet; — yet here, in the wilds of Switzerland, do these snows produce in their terrific rage thunders that deafen the loudest artillery; and avalanches that in a moment tear away whole forests, villages, all, at one fell swoop!

‘ Oh Nature! Nature! where’er we court thee, how sublime, how expanding, how immeasurably grand, how microscopically beautiful! All the most ardent human imaginations combined cannot conceive or fashion the least of the beauties which thou every where lavishest! nor can the deepest philosophy or reasoning fathom thy awful ways, and operations! Earth, water, air, fire, all the elements: — things animate and inanimate teem with thy wonders; — there is perfection of beauty and utility in the speck and the atom which is too fine for mortal eye to see; — and here, in this land, thou hast piled mountain upon mountain even to the skies: and hast given to icy frost, and to the simple snow-ball, all the majesty and all the terrors of the earthquake and volcano!’

As the most interesting part of a foreign tour is found in its dangers, so, if a traveller be occasionally somewhat dull, he is sure to revive our attention when he is assailed by banditti, or is near breaking his neck among the precipices of the Alps. From Chamouni the present author makes an excursion to the Mer de Glace, which seems to have been calculated not a little to disturb the state of the nervous system.

‘ Between seven and eight we left our inn, the Hôtel de Londres, at Chamouni; each upon his mule, being four; two boys to bring back our animals from a certain point; and three guides: and here let me record their names, and testify to that intrepidity, patience, and kindness, to which we owe our lives: — Matthieu Balmat, Julien Devarassoud, and Jean Baptist Messart.

‘ We mounted, by the help of our animals, half way up to Montanvert, by the sides of the most fearful heights; over roads, if so they can be termed, formed only by rocks, and heaps of stones,

stones, rudely jumbled together; up and down staircases, literally formed of huge mis-shapen masses of granite;—where one single stumble might hurl one to the fearful bottom. Yet the patient, sagacious mules never trip; always attentive to the path before them, when they meet any particular difficulty they will pause for a second, consider it attentively, and then plant their foot accordingly; and as I always abandoned the bridle, and left them at full liberty, I could the better admire the wild and savage scenery around me. On our way, the Swiss peasant girls, and some of them very pretty, were awaiting the arrival of travellers, to offer them strawberries and milk.

At the path called Le Chemin des Crystalliers, we dismounted, as thence to the Montanvert the road is inaccessible to any mule. Here our guides furnished each of us with a thick stick of about six feet long, having an iron spike at the end, by which contrivance alone pedestrians can scale these precipices, thrusting it in the ground as a security and holdfast both in mounting and descending. Another hour's hard labour brought us to the Montanvert. Here is seen to greater advantage the stupendous Mont Blanc, the giant mountain of the Old World, rising to 15,000 feet above the level of the sea, capped with eternal snows, and surrounded by an attendant court, as it is poetically termed, of minor mountains. On the eminence where we then were stands one poor hut, commonly called Le Pavillon, and as it commands an ample view of the Mer de Glace, it is the usual boundary of a traveller's pilgrimage.

But we had heard of a garden, Le Jardin des Alpes, at a yet greater height, said to bloom in the midst of Alpine snows, and here we determined to go. We partook of some cold meat, and took the remains, with some brandy and wine, in a wallet carried by one of the guides. Our *aubergiste* wished us "*un bon voyage*;" and at half past eleven we set off.

We first walked by the side of the Mer de Glace, and then across it. This stupendous object has been compared to a raging ocean suddenly frozen, but I was not particularly struck with the justice of the simile. It is a frozen ocean, varying in depth from 100 to 500 feet, but not the slightest similarity to waves is perceptible. It is riven, and cleft, and split into mighty fissures, and the most irregular forms. Its grandeur is immeasurably heightened by its perpetual motion, though a frozen body. The enormous rocks, and masses, of granite with which it is loaded are, nevertheless, always slowly advancing: the currents beneath are ever impelling the rocks of ice above, and these again the mountains of stone that rest upon them. In summer as the sun melts, on a sudden the ice will yield, and these gigantic granites are immediately gulphed into the chasms beneath, or tumble, thundering down the icy ocean, which is entirely on a descent. The eye is distressed by gazing so long upon such dazzling snows, though it is beautiful to observe such profound fissures of purest ice tinted so delicately blue and green;—to hear the torrent terrifically roaring far beneath your feet when you look down the gulphs,

gulphs; to see the vaulted caves, and caverns, of virgin ice, and to watch the waters formed by the violence of opposite torrents rushing impetuously below, and forcing curves and arches in the ice through which they foam along their course. It may be observed that fissures in the ice are sometimes found more than 1200 feet deep.

After traversing the ocean, it became necessary to mount the precipices. Here are the pyramidical rocks called the Needles. They are of various heights. Les Aiguilles du Midi are 12,000 feet high, being clusters of rocks rising one above the other, and terminating in a point like a needle. In the centre, towering far above all, appeared Mont Blanc, girt, and crowned, with eternal snows. It was now about five o'clock in the evening, and I had for some time past felt myself seized with indisposition. I experienced no particular fatigue, or pain, from the labour of the ascent, but was attacked with a sickness and debility, which deprived me of all powers of exertion. I sat down for a short time to recover myself; for I was within half an hour of the summit, and was determined to proceed. Three successive times I essayed to go on, but absolutely sunk down owing to the feebleness arising from illness. My companions therefore left me, and attained the wished-for height.

The sun would now quickly set: the garden was at an elevation of 5000 feet, and I had consequently to descend nearly as much. Slowly I got down a little way; and to my eager enquiries about the "garden" when rejoined by my friends, the result proved that they had clambered still higher rocks, and risked their lives; — to see what? Little better than about a quarter of an acre of grass: only remarkable as growing amidst a wild of snows; and as the utmost limits here accessible.

For a long time, spite of sickness on my part, and fatigue on all sides, we went on bravely, running along the frozen ocean, leaping over its perpetual furrows, and hideous chasms, and descending the rocks by the aid of our spears. The icy sea had altered much since we first passed: already the chills of evening had frozen what the morning sun had melted; the path we had trodden was effaced; darkness began to draw around us, and we were still leagues from home, in the midst of trackless snows, and inaccessible precipices. At every step we now took, it was necessary first to sound the spot with our spears to ascertain whether it were solid ice, or only a surface of momentary frost. For myself I cannot justly say that I feared the loss of life; moreover we all had the utmost confidence in our guides who, I am sure, knew the way well, though obliged by the darkness to take another route than that they came: my pain was the feebleness arising from sickness, and the hard necessity of making the most desperate efforts. Slower and slower now was our pace; and almost every step threatened us with a cruel death. At times, we descended deep into the gulph below; then again, looking upward upon the fearful, and frowning, rocks above us, we scaled the slippery precipice. Not one of us could discover the least appearance

pearance of path, or imagine where he was next to be led:—had our guides been harsh, instead of kind, it would have been precisely as if we were being hurried by some remorseless banditti to their horrid den. Frequently, and whilst thus shrouded in the darkness of the night, only one at a time could walk along the brink of the giddy precipice: sometimes, too, it was necessary to leap from one slippery rock of ice to another, which would totter with the weight, and as the treacherous ground kept crumbling beneath our feet, a gulph on either side was yawning to receive us!

‘In all these perils, our guides were foremost, and fearlessly exposed themselves to help us:—where we could not mount, they held out their spear to hold by, thus pulling us up by main force; and, where we hesitated to go down, they jumped first, and opened their arms to catch us.—Thus we continued precipice upon precipice; gulf after gulf, clambering by the aid of granites where there was barely a hollow to gripe a finger; or by rocks of ice in which our guides first hammered out a little bit as a step for the foot. My head ached to distraction; the feet of one of our party were so cut and sore that he groaned with pain, and declared that he would rather lay down on the bleak rocks than attempt to walk further. There was another, and to me, a sad aggravation—I knew we must remain at Montanvert that night:—no bed to hope for:—the greatest of all comforts after fatigue, or in sickness:—a wooden bench on a stone floor was the utmost we could expect.—But pains, like pleasures, have their termination:—about half past nine a glimmering of light at length appeared:—we redoubled our efforts, and reached our resting-place:—our host had been alarmed for our safety, and welcomed us sincerely;—a cup of tea and some brandy were all he could supply. He and our guides shared one mattress up stairs; we had a wooden bench a-piece, a little hay, and a blazing fire at our feet, and with the additional comfort of our great coats, we thus laid [*lay*] down to rest.’

Martigny, a village with a happy population of 2500 peasantry, suffered in May, 1818, a melancholy catastrophe. The valley of Bagnes, distant about 14 miles from Martigny, is watered by the Dranze; and this valley and the stream were blocked up by a vast mass of ice which had fallen from Mont Pleurer. It was 400 feet high, and measured 2000 at its base; and the river thus choked up formed a lake 7000 feet long, which soon rose to 200 feet. It was determined by the aid of skilful engineers to cut a gallery through the rock of ice, as an outlet to the waters: the peasantry worked night and day; by the 4th of June they had opened a gallery 600 feet long, six high and four broad; and on the 13th the waters rushed through, and fell in a magnificent cascade 350 feet deep. In three days more the lake had sunken 30 feet, and was not above 5000 in length.

‘ Their

‘ There were now hopes of security, and preservation. But alas! and in vain! In the course of the work, vast rocks of ice, some of them seventy feet thick, would detach themselves from the great mass, burst with a tremendous explosion, and scare the peasantry away. Had but the great barrier of ice remained firmly footed some days longer, the waters would have been sufficiently drained. But repeated explosions, and detached masses, announced the approaching catastrophe; and now the waters forcing a passage at the bottom of the lightened, and floating, ice, in a moment blew the whole to annihilation, forming a terrific torrent, 100 feet deep, sweeping all, in an instant, in one common havoc, and travelling the first eighteen miles at the rate of little more than two minutes to a mile. Whole forests and villages rushed down with the torrent. Almost all vestiges of the hamlets of Bagnes, Champisal, Martigny, &c. were effaced: — rocks of ice, houses, forests, cattle, people, and children, were seen mingling, and struggling together, with the raging waters. At Martigny, twenty miles distant from the fatal glacier, the water was fourteen feet high, and left in the market-place a rock fifty feet in circumference. At one time the mass of waters and ruins pouring through Bagnes was nearly 300 feet high, besides the misty vapors from it which rose to the heavens. By degrees the waters relaxed in strength, and speed, and reached the Lake of Geneva without affecting that place. They are supposed to have travelled more than fifty miles in between six and seven hours.

‘ However, perseverance and charity are aiding to repair past devastations; and Martigny is now rising from its ruins.’

Leaving Switzerland, the author makes a remark relative to the supposed cheapness of travelling in that country, in which he is amply confirmed by other testimonies. ‘ I found,’ says he, ‘ all charges equally high as at Paris, and accommodation certainly inferior.’ He crossed the Alps by the magnificent Simplon-pass, and reached Italy, he tells us, ‘ for the first time in my life on my birth-day.’ At Milan, we have a short account of the opera-house, La Scala, which is described as a *chef-d’œuvre* of architecture.

‘ The pit, I should guess, would hold about as many as our London Opera-house. There are six tiers of forty-six boxes in each tier, hung alternately with blue, and yellow, silk drapery. The first striking variation from an English theatre is its darkness; only the stage, the orchestra, and the royal box, in the centre, which has a handsome chandelier, being lit up. Thus almost the entire house is in obscurity; none of that display of female dress, beauty, and pomp, so conspicuous in our theatres is here; yet, I believe, this practice prevails throughout Italy, by which means certainly all trouble of parade is saved; and a family may enter their box at the opera, listen only to the more favourite airs, and in the interval do as they will. Each box having a private room, work, chat, or cards, are common. Over the proscenium is a clock

with a revolving dial-plate, which shows only the immediate hour, always at the top, and brightly illuminated. Every successive five minutes appears marked over the hour, then vanishes, giving place to the next, and so on. The architect of this admired building was Piermarini; the first representation took place in 1788; and it is further remarkable that the first regular theatre in Europe was built at Milan in 1490.

The opera was new that evening, entitled *Donna Aurora*; the music by Signor Morlachi. Madame Bellocchi was the *prima donna*, and warbled enchantingly; and Signora Margherita Schirra, a lovely young creature of nineteen from the Conservatory of Music, made her *debut* in the part of Giulia. Her exquisite voice, and her beauty; Madame Bellocchi; the playing of Rolla, the famous violinist, whom I had so much wished to hear, and who has led this orchestra for many years; — all these were combined, and infinitely pleased, at least, was I. The ballet of “*Didone Abbandonata*” was introduced, certainly very splendid, but I could not endure to witness the dignity of *Æneas* degraded by perpetually skipping about, and by all the contortions and attitudes of a dancing and posture master. Perhaps, however, he, like the rest, sank by comparison with the inimitable, the matchless, Pallerini, who played *Dido*. Her struggling passion for the hero; her gradual yielding; her warmest love; her agonies and despair at his leaving her; and her ultimately ascending the funeral pile: — here was every variation of the intensest passion that can agitate a woman’s bosom, shown and exhibited to the life, without a word, without a sound; and only by the perfection of acting, and by the most exquisite and heart-appealing expression of features! In the hunting scene, about a dozen real horses, and dogs, are introduced, and strange to say, the beauteous Queen of Carthage, without the least alteration, or change, of her splendid full dress, or plumes, was seen galloping upon her hunter, straddling like a man, and displaying her shapes almost as a man! My admission to the pit (the only place the public can go to, the boxes being almost universally engaged, and private property,) cost me fifteen-pence English.

In the Picture-gallery, the traveller notices the Crucifixion by Guido, and the Cupids of Albano: but its chief treasure is the Marriage of the Virgin by Raphael. In the hall of the convent of Dominican friars, Leonardo da Vinci painted his famous “*Last Supper*.”

“So much admiration has been excited by the merits of this work, and so much compassion for its fate, that I rejoice in having this morning seen an object of so great curiosity, and controversy. Having experienced so many misfortunes; having been whitewashed by the monks; daubed by other hands; corroded by the damps of the walls; and parched and blistered by the fumes and filth of a troop of cavalry horses, whose stable this hall, for a short time, once was, I must say that much more remains than might have been expected. Its size is about twenty-nine feet by

fifteen, and very much as it is mutilated, yet, after some short time's contemplation, and patient investigation, enough beauty may be seen to justify the high eulogiums it has received. Henceforward, and for ever, it will repose, and be venerated, while the matchless engraving of Raphael Morghen immortalizes its merits, and displays its beauties fresh as when first from the hands of the artist.

'The greatest disfigurement to my eye was the too apparent and miserable retouching by others, greater even than the irreparable loss of part of the picture being cut away. The fat and easy monks had a side door in this hall, or refectory, into the kitchen, which was the next room; but in order to serve the dishes hotter, they cut a door direct into the kitchen through the picture! This door is now for ever blocked; the portion, however, cut out is not the most material; it is in the centre, and takes away the table-cloth, and part of the table from under the Saviour. In this picture, the head of Judas is memorable from its inimitable expression of craft and treachery; and from the circumstance of Leonardo having long left this head unattempted, alleging that he could not pourtray any head sufficiently expressive of villainy, save the portrait of the Prior himself.'

The author crosses the bridge of boats over the Po at Novi; and because this classic stream is lined with poplars, and in Ovid's *Metamorphoses* the sisters of Phaeton were turned into poplars, we undergo the superfluous penance of having the whole fable repeated to us. Large slices out of the Roman history are also added on various occasions, which unnecessarily assist in swelling a work into two octavo volumes that might have been easily comprized in one. The author deduces the history of Genoa from the time of Janus, and we have the life of Andrew Doria doled out to us. We are therefore disposed to move from Genoa as fast as possible; and not wishing to go through the history of the Guelphs and Ghibellines, or even of Lorenzo the Magnificent, we do not stop at Florence but hasten to Rome. We were pleased to find the traveller indisposed to exaggerate the inquietudes and *désagrémens* of the journey from Florence to Rome.

'The ladies,' says he, 'may well be allowed to complain, but I think that the men may manage to bear these temporary incommodities. We certainly had but meagre fare, though it was rather amusing in some instances to try, and contrive, how to procure our little comforts. Tea we took with us; but this being a luxury unknown in these parts, the deuce of a tea-pot could be had. In this case, when sitting over a wood fire, we could get any sort of vessel, stewing pan, or fish pot, with or without a cover, we boiled the tea in it, and drank it out of tumblers, for want of cups, leaves and all, using a bit of bread instead of a spoon.'

'Sometimes the utmost we could achieve was to put the tea, each man in his own glass, and to pour the boiling water upon it. On one occasion, we thought ourselves famously well off in getting

ting hold of a soup tureen, cover and ladle, in lieu of tea-pot, tea-cups, basin, and other appendages. Such trifles excite laughter, and fun, rather than long or wry faces, and serve as a specimen of some part of this country.

' At La Novella, where the poor peasantry, or wretched inn, possess neither butter, sugar, milk, meat, or cow, &c. being five in company we were obliged to sleep three in a miserable rafter room; two bed-rooms, one of which was the dining-room, being all they had: and it was at this place that, finding but one basin, and one towel furnished for three people, I asked for two more towels. The good woman seemed quite amazed, exclaiming in bad Italian, "What! three towels! How could you expect such a magazine!"

' Our carriage was very comfortable, and our Vetturino did more than fulfil his promise; since, occasionally, without increasing his charge, he found, instead of four mules, five or six, to draw it. These animals, however, being as slow as they are sure, and never deviating from their own pace, were the cause of our being regularly called at three o'clock in the morning, and once at two o'clock, starting in one hour after, one only day excepted, when our Vetturino allowed us to sleep till seven o'clock, and thus we dragged on till about eight in the evening. However, even this inconvenience has its concomitant advantages, since it allows one to read or sleep in the carriage, to observe, to walk, or to ride at will.

' The expense, every matter included, was not 200 paoli a-head. (About 4*l*.)

It could not be expected that any thing new should be imparted on the subject of St. Peter's. Even recently, Vasi, Eustace, and the fair author of "*Rome in the Nineteenth Century*," have quite exhausted it. The present author notices some of its faults.

' Michael Angelo designed its interior as a Greek cross — Carlo Maderno made it a Latin. How much more gratifying to the eye, expansive, comprehensive, and noble is the first rather than the last!

' Its façade again by Maderno — grand as it undoubtedly may be, is it appropriate, pure, or proportionate, having the show of a palace-front, not the solemnity of a cathedral; split into many sections, and so unhappily screening that majestic dome which in our cathedral of St. Paul's so immediately and admirably arrests and delights the gaze?

' The towering genius of Bonarotti had designed a front similar to the majesty of the Pantheon!

' But it is in the interior of the church, when the spectator turns back from the high altar, that he must acknowledge that the reverse of the façade, and this termination, is [are] little in unison with the surrounding glories.'

The writer might have enumerated still greater defects, had he been thoroughly acquainted with the subject. The

Grecian arch, from the necessity of proportioning it to the magnitude of the building, has the unfortunate effect of diminishing its apparent length. There are only four arches in the whole length of this immense church; and the eye, measuring the space by the number, becomes cheated in the distance, which is a great defect. The windows are mean: but windows do not enter gracefully into the beautiful combination of Grecian architecture, nor do they, strictly speaking, form an integral part of it. The temples, the porticos, the theatres, and even the houses of the Greeks, had none: but in Gothic architecture nothing can be more grand and majestic than the arched and shafted windows. Some apology may be found, however, for the defects of St. Peter's, in the frequent changes of plans and Popes during the building of it; and in the real or imagined necessity of having an upper balcony for the purpose of giving the benediction: an accessory which has been so ruinous to its beauty, that the blessings of the Popes have been called the perdition of the church. The faults of the front are irredeemable. Carlo Maderno has all the merit of its ugliness.

We find but slight and superficial notices of the great monuments of antient art: but we may copy the remarks on Canova, in the loss of whom sculpture has to deplore one of its brightest ornaments.

' CANOVA. — Rome abounds with artists in every department, and of every country. To this focus and centre of art, ancient and modern, all who can gladly come, and I believe that by the regulations of the French Academy of Arts all their students, and competitors for distinction, are obliged to study here for five years.

' It is no little gratification to find a ready access to the productions of genius, and not a little delight have I experienced this morning in admiring the efforts of one, in my opinion, of the greatest sculptors of any age or country: — Canova.

' It is so much the mode to vaunt the matchless arts of Greece and Rome, that it seems a bold attempt to prove any thing modern worthy of such comparison. Doubtless there are relics of ancient sculpture, pre-eminent, surpassing, godlike. At the downfall of Greece, and Rome, the art seemed lost; witness the rude, the wretched, efforts of the middle, and darker, ages to revive it. These miserable productions, contrasted with the perfections of antiquity, occasionally dug from ancient ruins, naturally, by contrast, tended to debase the living art in proportion as they exalted the antique. But, can the wondrous faculties of man, ever straining towards perfection, be stationary? In these modern days are there not sculptors whose genius may vie with ancient Greece? Indeed I deem there are. I could enumerate several, but it is of Canova that I here speak, whose chisel may, I think, compete with any production of antiquity.

' To

‘ To enumerate a few I examined in his *atelier*. His Three Graces, for the Duke of Bedford. Colossal Statue of Bonaparte holding the Globe in his hand, surmounted by a figure of Victory. This vain-glorious monument was ordered, I understand, by Napoleon himself, and subsequently given by Louis to the Duke of Wellington. A Venus, for Mr. Hope. Endymion Sleeping, for a nobleman. A Nymph, for the King of England.

‘ These in their varying, and differing, attributes are perhaps as fine as ever were called into life. His Chloris awakened, and his Hebe, are, I presume, known to all. The loveliest personification of exquisite feminine beauty, and in every sense the expression of the original verse,

‘ *Dorme Clorè, coll’ arpa Amor la desta :
Sorge su’l fianco, e ad ascoltar s’arresta.*

‘ Chloris sleeps, but Love attunes the silver lyre;
She wakes to rise, — to listen, — to admire.

‘ The little Cupid, with his lyre, what can exceed the archness of his look, or the expression of the soft, harmonious, sounds he seems to be insinuating in her ear ?

‘ Hebe is personified according to this verse :

‘ *Ebe, con aureo serto incoronata,
Di nettare, e d’ambrosio, in ciel ministra.*

‘ Hebe with brows by a golden garland graced
In Heav’n pours nectar for the Gods to taste.

‘ Rome, and the Pope, seem’duly to appreciate his merits, since in the Vatican, and in the same range with the Apollo, and the Laocoon, they have placed his Perseus, and his two boxers, Creugas and Damoxenus. The boxers, each a living Hercules, all muscle, and gigantic strength : Perseus, a model of godlike beauty, and like the Apollo, beaming triumphant at the moment of cutting off the Gorgon’s Head.

‘ The attitude of these boxers, so very different from the modern system in the “Fancy” of perpetual guard, and self-defence, may need some little explanation to the admirers of “milling.” They made an agreement. Creugas has given to Damoxenus his blow, the most vengeful that his utmost force could accomplish. Now it is the other’s turn. Creugas stands perfectly defenceless ; Damoxenus heaves his brawny hand into his antagonist’s body, and lays him lifeless. Wonderfully fine as are these prodigies of strength, and honoured by a temple in the Vatican of Rome, could I, for my own halls, select the works of Canova, they should be his feminine. It may be very natural that I should prefer to gaze on the fair sex rather than on my own, but where Canova has wrought female charms there we find aerial lightness, classic taste, refined judgment, beauty too perfect for mortal shape, ideal perfection.’

We are disposed to acquiesce in the traveller’s estimate of Thorwaldson, the Danish sculptor at Rome: but we cannot

insert it: nor can we follow him from church to church, or from palace to palace; nor through the tedious and heavy summary of papacy and papal government; nor through his rather dull disquisition on the bulls of Leo X., Henry VIII., the Reformation, &c. &c., with which the book is so *amply amplified*. We turned to his account of the Roman Forum, with some hope of adding a mite to our scanty stock of information concerning the most interesting spot of antient Rome, and which is still likely to bring forth many valuable remains of the former world, to repay the labor and expence of the investigation: — but all that we could get, after a few scraps from Livy concerning the antient Forum, is to be found in the following passages:

‘ Such was the Roman Forum. As it is, there remain three Corinthian columns of Greek marble, part of the portico of a temple dedicated to Jupiter Tonans, erected by Augustus in gratitude for his escape from a thunderbolt which killed his servant by his side; and on the entablature of which are sculptured ancient sacrificial instruments. Eight columns appertaining to a disputed temple, that of Fortune, or of Concord. Some remains of a temple lately discovered, and positively asserted as the temple of Concord. The column of Phocas. Three magnificent columns, remains supposed of the Comitium, or Hall of Assembly of the People, but according to others, vestiges of the temple of Jupiter Stator, — erected, or at least vowed, as far back as the days of Romulus, who, when his troops were flying from the victorious Sabines, intreated Jupiter to stay their flight. His prayers were heard, — the Romans were victorious, and this temple was the acknowledgment to heaven: and there are, farther, some shattered remnants of the Curia, or building appropriated for religious or for senatorial purposes.

‘ Also the triumphal arch erected about 1600 years ago in honour of the victories gained by Septimus Severus over the Parthians.

‘ The triumphal arch of Titus consecrated to that Emperor in commemoration of the conquest of Jerusalem; but which is not at this moment seen, being completely dismantled, and taken to pieces, preparatory to its thorough restoration and replacement.

‘ The arch of Constantine, commemorative of his victories, as well as of that over Maxentius, who, in flying from his conqueror, was drowned in the Tiber by the breaking of the bridge, the Ponte Molle, crossed in entering Rome by the Porta del Popolo, on the Via Flaminia, anciently called the Pons Milvius, or Æmilius, and built by Æmilius Scaurus. Its *bassi-relievi* are all allusive to Roman history; and it was once surmounted by a triumphal car of Constantine, drawn by the famous and oft transplanted four bronze horses, now again at Venice. From its preservation it is one of the most valuable antiquities left to these times, though some of its finest ornaments are the wilful spoils of the senate of Rome from the arch of Trajan.’

The three magnificent columns, to which this traveller has tacked a piece of the history of Romulus and the Sabines, are now called the "Disputed Columns:" but opinion goes round like the hand of a clock; and now they are generally considered to have belonged to the *Comitium*, which was the opinion of Nardini 50 years ago. As to the reasons on which the supposition rests, we take them to be these. The *Comitium* is ascertained to have been nearly at the base of the Palatine hill, in front of the Curia, and considerably above the Forum, with which it communicated by a flight of steps. Now the columns in question answer to this description. They are so far above the antient Forum as to be on a level with the present surface; some marble steps in front of them have been brought to light by recent excavations; and they are in front of the Curia Julia, which was begun by Julius Cæsar and finished by Augustus. It is marked as the Curia or Senate-house in the antient plan of Rome in the Vatican; and before it is a part of the *Comitium*, with its colonnaded front, exactly corresponding to the "Disputed Columns." The consular fasti were also found here; and some additional fragments of them have actually been discovered in the excavation carried on by the late Duchess of Devonshire. — Yet even this hypothesis is not unassailable, since a temple of Castor and Pollux also stood at the foot of the Palatine, and had steps belonging to it; for Cato, as he entered the Forum, according to Plutarch, (*in vit. Cat.*) saw the steps of that temple covered with gladiators, and Metellus seated at the top of them with Cæsar. — Why does the present traveller include the arch of Constantine among the ruins of the Forum? Those ruins consist only of the arch of Severus, the Temple (or what is supposed to be the Temple) of Concord, the single column of Phocas, the wall of the Curia, (of which he says nothing,) and the "Disputed Columns."

We are admonished by the length to which our article has extended, that we must not make any farther extracts or remarks; and we therefore take our leave of the author at Rome, without attending him to Naples, Venice, &c. We recommend his work, subject to the previous deductions from its praise, to those who wish for a tolerably useful guide-book: but it would unquestionably have been still more useful, had that unsparing retrenchment been applied to it which would reduce its bulk to the half of its present size. As he has chosen to make it *historical*, however, and to term it so in his title-page, we may suppose that he designed it rather for the instruction of the uninformed reader at home than as a *compagnon de voyage* for brother-tourists.

ART. VII. *The Principles of Forensic Medicine, systematically arranged, and applied to British Practice.* By John Gordon Smith, M.D., Lecturer on Political Medicine. Second Edition, greatly enlarged. 8vo. pp. 600. 16s. Boards. Underwoods. 1824.

THE increasing attention of the medical profession to the important subject of *legal medicine* has been evinced, in a very satisfactory and gratifying manner, by the speedy sale of the first edition of Dr. G. Smith's work on this subject; as well as by the recent appearance of a more extended publication, the result of the united labors of a physician and a barrister. We agree most cordially with Dr. Smith in the opinion; however, that his work has not been superseded by the latter; and we congratulate him on the ardor and intelligence with which he has engaged in the revision and enlargement of his own labors.

As the arrangement of a treatise on Forensic Medicine must always be a matter of some difficulty, clearness and convenience ought perhaps to compensate for the presence of any of those imperfections which, we believe, are in such cases altogether unavoidable. Putting wholly out of view the subjects of medical ethics and medical police, Dr. S. has restricted himself entirely to the consideration of the other questions, in which the lights of medical science are capable of being employed with advantage to aid the proceedings of our courts of law; and, in considering this great department of political medicine, he has adopted a very simple and sufficiently appropriate arrangement. The questions to be discussed are divided into four classes: 1. those that relate to the Extinction of Life; 2. those that relate to Injuries not mortal; 3. those that relate to Disqualifications for the Performance of social or civil Functions; 4. Miscellaneous Questions. This last class has been formed for the reception of such topics as could not be elsewhere admitted: namely, utero-gestation, sexual ambiguity, personal identity, survivorship, life-insurance, and medical evidence. — To enter on a consideration of the numerous and important points, discussed under these several heads, would lead us far beyond the limits that we can allot to any single publication of this nature: indeed, the large mass of valuable materials which the volume contains, and the success with which it has been condensed into a moderate bulk, in a great measure preclude the possibility of our offering to our readers any satisfactory analysis of its contents. We shall briefly advert, however, to a few of those portions of it which seem most to require notice.

The

The detection of vegetable poisons has long been considered by medical jurists as a task of no small difficulty; but that much *may* be accomplished, by the competent inquirer, is sufficiently proved by the following judicious remarks of Dr. Smith:

‘ The practitioner, who may be called to the aid of the coroner, should be acquainted with other peculiarities that characterize known poisons than their effects on the animal system; as their form, colour, odour, and, if practicable and consistent with personal safety, their taste. This remark I hold peculiarly applicable to plants. He should know the haunts of those that are indigenous, especially in the neighbourhood of his own residence; he should be no stranger to their flowers, leaves, stalks, and roots. If to this it be objected, that such acquaintance requires a share of attention incompatible with the claims of the other and more ordinary calls on his professional exertions, and that people forget what they are not in the frequent habit of seeing, the answer is easy. These things must be studied some time or other; and if it be even conceded that they may afterwards be forgotten, who will not admit, that between sitting down to refresh the memory, and to learn *de novo*, there can be no comparison in point of enterprise? A book, or notes of reference, are more worthy of confidence than the best of memories; and if one merely knows where to find ready information, he knows a great deal. This the man who has even forgotten much, may be able to do with ease and rapidity; but he who has never learnt, will be miserably perplexed.

‘ If, with the attention now enjoined, we keep in mind the following considerations, the difficulties in the way of deciding what vegetable poison has been taken will lose some of their apparent magnitude.

‘ 1. The sensible properties of vegetables are not so readily destroyed; or in other words, vegetable preparations do not so readily form combinations in the alimentary canal as minerals. This statement will be illustrated in the sequel.

‘ 2. There is a peculiarity in the character of symptoms induced by vegetable poisons, which, though not met with in every case, is worthy of attention. The ancients judged by the symptoms only; and while there has been good reason to suppose that many instances of death have been placed to the account of poison which belonged to disease, it is unquestionably true that in cases of this sort, both general symptoms of suffering, and certain external appearances in the bodies of those poisoned, have been noticed by acute and accurate observers. To symptoms, however, it is proper in all cases to pay attention, even with a view to form an opinion as to the nature of the substance swallowed, although from the greater certainty of other tests in mineral poisons I thought it less necessary, when treating of them, to dwell upon the import of symptoms.

‘ 3. Cases

‘ 3. Cases of vegetable poisoning are said to be more susceptible of relief. Dr. Male observes that they are simpler in their effects. This arises from their remaining so long unchanged in the intestinal canal, and from their not acting chemically, and destroying organic texture, otherwise than through the medium of the inflammatory process, for which effect a certain space of time is necessary. It is evident that this peculiarity affords not only facility in the relief of suffering, but also for the purpose of detection; as where a person's life is saved by evacuating the contents of the stomach, we may be enabled to recognize the presence of the deleterious article; while the same cause that simplifies its action on the living animal economy may favour its detection in the body after death.

‘ 4. I have already alluded to the difficulty of poisoning by vegetables without some trouble; and the hint that vegetable poisons must generally be given in medicinal preparations, on account of their strong sensible qualities, will have its use in helping to detection, although this, of all modes of poisoning, may be considered the most cunning.

‘ Finally. It must be kept in mind, that although plants in general are endowed with the same qualities in all their parts, yet some portions of the same individual plant may be wholesome, and others noxious, or certain parts more vigorous than others; while many plants are poisonous in one state of existence or preparation, and not so in another.’

The subjoined quotation, on the painful but interesting subject of presumed infanticide, will place the author's good sense, literary attainments, and feelings of humanity, in a very satisfactory point of view :

‘ Concealment of birth is a frequent occurrence; and in such cases it may be just to surmise the worst. But if we admit the possibility of a woman being delivered in solitude, without any such intention on her own part, and being delivered of a still-born child, what moral criminality will follow her resolving to conceal her disgrace, since no one can be thereby injured? A young female, who knows nothing of such matters, and to whom reputation is every thing, has reason to suspect herself to be with child. As yet it cannot be more than suspicion, why should she rashly confide the secret of her shame to those who would be the first perhaps to take advantage of such confidence to ruin her? Time, however, confirms her unhappy surmises, and she is perplexed about the result. She has no friend to whom she can reveal her situation, or if she has a confidant of her own sex, the revelation even to her must be a severe misfortune, as she will thereby injure herself in that person's opinion; for women are, in this matter, proverbially uncharitable. Shall she impart it to one of ours? That is quite out of the question. She resolves at length to make what preparation she can to meet the urgency of the moment when it shall arrive; and then, when concealment is no longer practicable, she will apply in a quarter where she can obtain the necessary aid.

Sooner

Sooner than this it seems quite unnecessary to announce the event, and it would be to the last degree repugnant. Such being her plan, she pursues it till unexpectedly overtaken with the pains of labour, in a situation where no assistance can be obtained, or by a process so rapid, that it would be impossible to avail herself of any, if at hand. She finds herself delivered of a dead child, and the success of previous concealment encourages the hope that if she can hide the traces of what has now happened, her reputation will be saved, while no one can be injured. Circumstances, however, lead to suspicion; search is made; the child is found; an accusation of infanticide is set up; the coroner holds an inquest; all the mouths of the neighbourhood are in full cry; an apprentice from the nearest apothecary's shop first mangles the body of the infant; and then the evidence that ought to be obtained from it; the jury, knowing that they cannot hang her, and under-estimating all other considerations, send her to gaol, by stating on oath, that twelve of them at least believe she has committed murder. If this takes place in London she may be brought to trial shortly; but if in the country she may be consigned to the horrors of a prison for months. Sooner or later, however, a true bill is found by the grand inquest, and she is finally produced before the petty jury, with whom rests the issue. Some question is put to a medical practitioner as speedily as possible*, which he either cannot answer, or so answers as to leave the question of murder in doubt. The Judge informs the jury that there is no evidence of the child having been born alive, and directs them to acquit her of the capital charge, and find her guilty of the misdemeanour of concealing the birth. This being done, she resumes her abode in gaol, and at the end of her imprisonment may come out in any state as to character that may happen to be the consequence of her recent mode of life: — to her it can make little difference, she is worthless, and will be scouted by all those who have had better luck; and this is the tale of the majority of cases called infanticide: — this is a story of love.'

With great judgment, and considerable labor, Dr. S. has profited by the advancement which has taken place in the state of forensic knowledge since the period of his former edition (in 1821); and he has now produced a work which possesses much higher claims on the attention of the public. A considerable quantity of new matter, derived partly from recent treatises on the subject, and partly from the judicial investigations of the last few years, has been added; and some less important subjects, as that of occult poisoning, have been omitted.

Unqualified praise, however, is rarely merited; and, on the present occasion, we feel it to be our duty to direct the

* On several recent trials, the medical witness has been examined first.

attention of our readers to a few particulars in the work of Dr. Smith which appear to us to call for animadversion. In illustrating one or two points of discussion, he has availed himself of facts communicated in conversation, and perhaps imperfectly recollected:—a practice which we regard as altogether inconsistent with the scientific character of the *Principles of Forensic Medicine*. Of this description is a case of apparent death from apoplexy, in which no blood could be obtained by venesection: but, some hours afterward, it was found that a large quantity had flowed while the attendants were asleep; and Dr. Smith would lead us to the conclusion that resuscitation had taken place, and that the patient was lost by hæmorrhage. The details of this singular history are really so meagre, and the language is so general, that we feel quite unable to acquiesce in the opinion of Dr. Smith. We are not informed whether the ligatures on the arms had been allowed to remain, nor whether any change had taken place in the posture of the body; nor does it appear that any dissection was made to ascertain the real cause of the extinction of life. We believe that veins opened on the sudden occurrence of dissolution, although at the moment yielding no blood, will always pour out more or less of that fluid when the contraction of death has fully taken place; and a case of this nature is fresh in our recollection, in which a considerable discharge of blood oozed from the open jugular vein, some hours after sudden death: but not the most remote cause existed for suspecting that resuscitation had occurred.

In speaking of septic poisons, the author has said, ‘The fact is undeniable, that not only is it considered a luxury to eat certain kinds of animal food, under a high degree of decomposition, or very near approach thereto, but it has never been considered unwholesome;—on the contrary, this description of food is more digestible than that of animals not long killed.’ (P. 208.) Here we cannot agree with him. That such food is more readily masticated, and that the vitiated taste considers it as a luxury, we will not dispute: but we are convinced, from observation, that it is less digestible than the flesh of an animal recently killed.

It was long ago held by physicians that, in mania, the patient possessed a preternatural power of resisting cold and hunger; and Dr. Smith has introduced these particulars, as acknowledged facts, into his definition of maniacal disease. (P. 418.) Those, however, who have most carefully studied the phenomena of such affections are now convinced of the fallacy of this opinion; which originated in the erroneous idea that

ed men to regard the maniac as a malignant and ferocious being, and to treat him as if he were a savage animal. A happy change has of late years taken place in the management of the insane, which has been followed by the removal of much of the horror and danger that formerly surrounded these unfortunate beings.

Dr. Smith has also followed the opinion of those who believe that a blow on the region of the stomach proves fatal by 'the sudden shock to respiration, through the intimate connection of the eighth pair of nerves' (p. 285.): but we are inclined to think that such blows never kill unless they fall on the epigastric concavity, or pit of the stomach; and that their effect is not so much on the stomach as on the heart, which is paralyzed by the sudden impulse communicated to it through the diaphragm, so that thus life is almost in a moment extinguished.

The education and learning of Dr. Smith are obviously such as are befitting a member of a literary profession; and for this reason, as well as the uniformly able execution of the work before us, we must regard the following errors in the employment of Latin terms as mistakes of the printer, rather than of the author. Instead of *digitalis purpurea*, we have *digitalis purpureum*. (P. 192.) *Colica pictonum* is said to signify 'with equal strictness' the painter's colic and the colic of the people of *Poictou*; thus confounding *pictonum* with *pictorum*. (P. 558.) In both editions, the author tells us that, in treating some of the topics of disqualification, 'he can pretend but to trace the *summa vestigia*' (p. 415.); meaning, no doubt, to say *summa fastigia*, from the well-known line in the first *Æneid*, "*sed summa sequar*," &c.

After a careful perusal of this work, we feel warranted in adding our humble commendations of its merits to that more substantial decision in its favor, which the public have already pronounced by the purchase of the first edition. We have no hesitation in saying that it contains a very accurate and condensed exposition of the principles of Forensic Medicine; that it is sufficiently copious, without unnecessary minuteness; that it is correct and luminous in its instructions; and that it is every where well adapted to form a safe guide to the medical practitioner, when called to attend a case which is likely to become the subject of judicial investigation.

ART. VIII. *Lectures on the general Structure of the Human Body, and on the Anatomy and Functions of the Skin; delivered before the Royal College of Surgeons in London, in the Courses for 1823.* By Thomas Chevalier, F.R.S. &c., Professor of Anatomy and Surgery to the College. 8vo. pp. 277. 12s. Boards. With Seven Plates. Longman and Co. 1823.

WE are highly gratified in contemplating the elevated station which the Royal College of Surgeons of London has recently attained, and to mark the ardor and talent with which its members have pursued not merely professional objects but every branch of collateral and auxiliary science. It is obvious that the example of the genius and astonishing acquirements of John Hunter would, of itself, have had the effect of awakening to a certain extent, in the minds of his successors, this love of scientific knowledge: but we are convinced that the influence of his example has been heightened, to a very great degree, by the munificent donation of his invaluable Museum, by the establishment of professorships of anatomy and surgery to the College, and, we may add, by the institution of the Hunterian oration.

To the operation of these causes, aided no doubt by the general increase of improvement and diffusion of knowledge over the whole face of society, we would ascribe that eminence to which, we repeat, the Royal College of Surgeons has of late years risen. From the lectures delivered at the College, we have derived some of the most valuable contributions to natural science which we yet possess; and we trust that the same professional chair will send forth, in succeeding years, works of equal or superior merit. It is very desirable, however, that no expectation should be entertained that every course of lectures delivered in that place will be published: for instances will occur in which a man of acknowledged talent may not happen to be in possession of original materials for the composition of a course of lectures, such as he would wish to commit to the press; or it may chance that ill health has so broken his leisure, that he may be forced into the field with only half his equipment. In such cases as these, it is surely better that the professor should content himself with the applause of his audience, and the reputation of his spoken eloquence, than appear before the public as an author with a work that is unworthy of him, or which he himself shall conceive to require an apology.

These observations have been drawn from us by the lectures of Mr. Chevalier, whose character as a surgeon and a teacher of surgery is too well known, and too highly prized by the public, to require any commendations from us: for it is quite

quite evident that these lectures are not altogether such as we had a right to expect from their author. In the course of the work, he complains of the interruptions of a long and severe illness, and in his dedication he speaks of an expectation being entertained that he should publish these lectures. Under circumstances such as these, he would undoubtedly have acted more wisely in resisting the solicitations of partial friendship, and withholding from the press those compositions which he conceived in any degree to require an apology: but let us not be understood, by these expressions, to refuse to the work before us all claim to public approbation: on the contrary, we have had considerable pleasure in the perusal of it, and have found in it a more interesting and minute account of the human integument than is to be obtained in any other English writer.

The first three lectures are dedicated to the illustration of the general structure of the human body. After having passed in review the various systems of which the frame is composed, and glanced at the wonderful manner of its evolution from a minute and pulpy mass, the author closes with this rhetorical peroration:

‘ And now let me conclude this hasty and imperfect sketch of that wonderful machine, some of the disorders, diseases, and injuries of which, and their appropriate remedies, as far as I am acquainted with them, it will be my duty to lay before you, with calling to your recollection, that the numberless portions of which it is composed are not, like the interrupted and tardy contrivances of human art, produced, arranged, altered, and repaired by slow and complicated labours, and additions of materials, which are first to be sought out, then to be separately prepared, and afterward arranged in their respective masses, having no power of securing or providing for their own increase and regulation: but here the whole derives its source from one formative impulse, one universal law, by which Omnipotence has impressed, on an unconscious and diminutive portion of matter, the power of commencing and continuing operations, in the darkness of the womb, both the complexity and order of which the research of ages has been insufficient to develope. But however we may be humbled, we ought not to be appalled by this consideration. Truth has been compared, you know, to a treasure lying at the bottom of a well; and the depth of this well will be an excitement, and not a discouragement, to those who know the value, and have caught a glimpse of the beauty, of the wealth it contains; and to which, while it reveals an approach, demands, as an indispensable condition for its acquirement, diligence and zeal, and often an endurance of disappointment; — a disappointment which is not to discourage, but to re-animate that zeal to a patient resumption of its toil, and will confer additional verdure on the laurels which are to crown its success.

‘ In

In concluding this part of my subject, then, gentlemen, allow me to say, — and I can assure you I say it with no insincere or hypocritical profession, — that I cannot quit this cursory view of the human body, without mortifying feelings, — feelings arising from a consciousness of my own deficiencies. Life is too short for any individual to make much progress in supplying the voids which yet remain in our science; we must all, however, labour to make such additions to it as our abilities and opportunities may enable us. But little as we already know, our knowledge would be more insignificant than it is, if it did not conduct us, and incline us to conduct others, to an adoration of that infinite Wisdom and Power which presides over every department of the universe, and to a more ardent study of the works of Him, who has ordained the production and disposal of every substance in nature, from the thin and almost intangible gossamer that floats on the feeblest breath of the air, to the massy and immovable rock that withstands the most boisterous tempests of the ocean. With this impression, Mr. Abernethy once told you, in the happy parody of a line from one of our most celebrated poets, —

“ An undevout anatomist is mad.”

Such, too, were the feelings of Boerhaave and of Haller; in mentioning whom, I have named two of the greatest, and wisest, and best of men, by whom medical science has ever been adorned and advanced.

The remaining six lectures are employed in explaining the minute structure of the integument of the human body, as well as the functions which it performs, and for which it is so admirably adapted. Mr. Chevalier divides the skin into two principal portions, the *corion* or *cutis*, and the *epidermis*; including under this latter term the *rete mucosum*, to which he has given the name of internal epidermis. The examinations of the cuticle, or *epidermis*, which have been made by the author, have convinced him that it possesses no distinct pores or minute openings, except the perforations made by the hairs, and by the excretory ducts of the sebaceous glands. He has also shewn, to our satisfaction, that its texture is bibulous, and that the processes of exhalation and absorption take place through its interstices. Firmly adherent to the inner surface of the cuticle is the *rete mucosum*, or internal *epidermis*; which, when detached from the *cutis*, and examined through a powerful microscope, manifested to Mr. Chevalier not any appearance of pores, but ‘an infinite number of minute *velamina* regularly arranged, of exquisite tenuity, presenting a follicular appearance, and separated from each other by bands of a thicker substance crossing and intersecting them so as to render them distinct.’ (P. 134.) From this structure, he ingeniously deduces an explanation of the processes of cutaneous exhalation and absorption.

‘ If,’

'If,' says he, 'the terminal vessels of the cutaneous apparatus are lodged, as I fully believe them to be, in these *velamina*, (of which, though perfectly distinct, I attempted in vain to count the number in the fortieth part of a square inch,) so long as the vessels maintain a vital connection with them, they transmit their secretion through them, as through a bibulous, and exquisitely hygrometrical covering, of the finest delicacy and perfection; while, through the same medium, and dependent on subjacent tubes taking a contrary course inward, absorption is carried on to a great, but less certain extent and continuity. The whole purpose which could be answered by pores, or holes, as the term is commonly understood, is thus fulfilled by an arrangement, which, while it answers all the purposes, avoids all the inconveniences of perforatory pores, as it obviates all chance of extravasation within, of hurtful exposure without, and of confusion in either direction. But when this vital union is destroyed, the cuticle, now reduced to its merely chemical but astonishing properties of endurance, becomes incapable of continuing its transmissive office with any certainty or regularity.'

In a subsequent part of the work, the Lecturer seems disposed to regard the internal *epidermis* as one wide and diffused perspiratory gland, supplied by the vascular texture of the cutaneous villi, and conveying to the cuticle the fluid of perspiration in all its various degrees.

Mr. Chevalier has discovered between the two layers of the *epidermis*, or in common language between the cuticle and the *rete mucosum*, a set of minute glandular bodies, to which he has given the name of *interepidermal glands*. Their office, in his opinion, is to secrete a sebaceous matter: for he was unable to detect them in parts in which perspiration goes on both evidently and copiously. We hope that we shall be excused for suspending our opinion regarding the nature and exact situation of these supposed glands, as they do not appear to have been seen by any other anatomist, and as the author himself succeeded in detecting them only on cuticle which had been macerated for upwards of six weeks; and from which the internal *epidermis*, being completely broken down by putrefaction, was readily rubbed off. We know not whether these glands are at all connected with the *gemmules* described by Gualtier, in his very elaborate and minute dissections of the *rete mucosum*: but we are more inclined to consider the *gemmules* of the latter as corresponding with the *velamina* or cells of Mr. Chevalier; for M. Gualtier* describes them as convex externally and concave internally,

* *Récherches Anatomiques sur le Système cutané, &c.* Paris. 1812.

each being occupied by a minute vascular eminence projecting from the surface of the *corion*.

The structure and uses of the hair, that appendage of the skin, are discussed by Mr. C. in a diffuse and rather unsatisfactory manner. He introduces the subject by declaring that the hairs are 'portions of the animal fabric, which perhaps of all the obvious and *uneludable* parts of the body, have been most of all neglected in man; while in quadrupeds they have engrossed, and justly occupied, in all ages, almost the whole concern of a large proportion of traffickers and manufacturers in every part of the world.' (P. 189.) We feel rather at a loss to comprehend how the author has discovered, that the hair is a neglected portion of the human fabric; since the whole tribe of barbers, hair-dressers, wig-makers, and inventors of *huile antique*, Macassar oil, *pommade divine*, Tyrian dye, curling fluid, and a hundred other equally valuable preparations for the purposes of beautifying and preserving the human hair, will attest the interest which this part of our bodily frame has long attracted. Mr. Chevalier appears to have confounded the root of the hair with the bulb containing the vascular pulp by which it is secreted; and he has referred us, for the structure of these parts, to a microscopical drawing which presents but a very indistinct illustration of the subject. Notwithstanding the remark made by Blumenbach, that the hairs sometimes found in melicerous and steatomatous tumors are usually destitute of bulbs, we think that the researches of Professor Macartney have sufficiently proved that hairs are a secretion from the vascular pulp within the bulb. In several of the diseases of the hairy scalp, we see the secreting power of these bodies becoming gradually weaker, and the hair assuming a more and more delicately silky texture, till at length it disappears altogether. A discharge of a morbid fluid then takes place from the bulbs; and, if the disease be not arrested, the bulbs are destroyed, and incurable baldness ensues. — On the other hand, when a successful treatment has been pursued, the discharge ceases, and hair is again secreted; at first, of almost invisible fineness, like a spider's thread; till by degrees it acquires the strength and diameter that belong to a state of health.

As to the vascular structure of the *corion*, and the villi by which its surface is every where covered, they have received from the author a due share of attention, and have been illustrated by drawings of some singularly successful injections. We can say, with truth, that we have never before seen such beautiful and minutely distinct lithographic drawings, as in the work now before us. Those of the injected vessels of the skin

of

Of the ear, to which we have just alluded ; several others of the minute structure of the skin ; and one, in particular, of a piece of doe-skin ; afford gratifying evidence of the high state of improvement to which the ingenious Mr. Hullmandel has brought the art of lithographic drawing.

The style of the lectures before us is rather that of spoken than of written eloquence, and too often outsteps the modesty of scientific discussion. In considering the duties of a surgeon, Mr. C. makes the following elaborate observations :

‘ Familiarized with others, as we must necessarily be, under all the contingencies and vicissitudes of life, in every rank and station, from the imperial diadem to the meanest badge of poverty and distress, our sentiments, and the promulgation of those sentiments, must always have an important influence on the tone, the conversation, and perhaps often on the conduct, of the society with which we are intermixed, and who look up to us for relief in the most trying and unexpected incidents of their lives. We are not indeed to pry into the secret concerns of those who require our assistance ; but we may eye their tempers and their feelings with a philosophical though silent observance, in order to note their pathological influences. Nor can it always be a matter of justifiable indifference to us, (such are the real, but various and generally *debilitating* effects of the passions,) even as it respects the *treatment* of our patients, whether injuries are received by them, or sudden diseases invade them, or latent diseases become developed, under the fortitude of heroism, or the vacillations of timidity ; under the consciousness of rectitude, or under the compunctions of guilt ; under the anxieties of embarrassment, or the satisfactions of competence ; under unprovided disappointment, or unexpected success ; under the fretfulness and irritability of a peevish temper, or the composed resignation of philosophy and religion ; under the finer sensibilities of affection and virtue, or the careless and stubborn obduracy of habitual crime. In many points of view, men are to be considered as modifications of material substance, for such they are ; in others they are to be looked on as living animals, for such also they are. — But there are others in which they must moreover be looked upon as moral and intellectual, as accountable and immortal beings. *Surgeons* must not forget, or overlook, that higher principle in mankind on which their chief dignity and duty, their powers of contemplation and reflection, their present and final responsibility, their happiness and composure, and often their greatest sufferings, in consequence, depend.’

Our readers, we believe, will not readily divine the object to which the author has endeavoured to direct the attention of his younger auditors in the ensuing passage :

‘ It may not appear immediately to bear on our specific duties, but in minute anatomy it is one among many, many more, by
F 2 which

which alone structure can be developed, and which are open to their toil, and demand it, during that period of quiet, and leisure, and disengagement from the cares of life, which is chiefly the lot of those who are beginning the practical part of their profession. Nay, it will not only afford them interest as philosophers, as physiologists, and as surgeons, but will help to mould their minds to diligence, to discrimination, and to observation of facts, the effect of which will have a most beneficial influence on their habits, their facility of discerning, their promptitude, and, at the same time, their caution in judging, their firmness in acting, and their composure and accuracy in reflecting, that will amply repay them for all they have endured, and for all they have done.

The subject of all this ardent encomium is no other than the process of putrefaction; which Mr. C. conceives to have been hitherto imperfectly studied, and the textures which had been unravelled by it 'too often thrown heedlessly away, in the stinking water in which it had been accomplished' (P. 237.) The effect of such occasionally turgid language has been heightened by the introduction of sundry vocabularies, hitherto, we believe, entire strangers to our native tongue; besides others which, although used by some few writers, are now obsolete.

Although we have felt it to be our duty thus to animadvert on some parts of these lectures, we cannot take leave of their late respected author without expressing our sincere thanks for the manner in which he has explained and illustrated the minute structure of the skin, and for the interesting and ingenious view which he has presented to us of its uses and functions. We much regret that his recent decease has prevented him from resuming his inquiries into this subject, and redeeming his pledge to apply his knowledge of the structure of the skin to the elucidation of its numerous and changeable diseases.

ART. IX. *Greece in 1824*, by the Author of "*War in Greece*." 8vo. pp. 24. Ridgway.

THE writer of this little tract, having a personal knowledge of the localities of Greece and the character of its inhabitants, may fairly be deemed better qualified to give advice on the conduct of affairs in this critical hour, than we are to sit in judgment on the policy of acting according to it. His advice, however, should have been directly submitted to the constituted authorities of that country in which it can be appreciated, for it will reach them in a slow and circuitous manner by the publication of it first in England. Although we

are not less sanguine as to the final issue of the present contest now than we were at any former period, it cannot be disguised that the Greeks have met with some reverses; and that their cause has not proceeded in that rapid and overwhelming course of conquest, which at one time gave us hopes that the struggle would be short as well as glorious. The author says that Greece is 'like a dissected map in the hands of children: all the pieces are there, but the children cannot make them fit.' Is she not rather like a dislocated machine in the workshop of a mechanic, the screws, and wheels, and pulleys lying on the floor, and waiting only for his scientific hand to put them in combination and set them in motion, in order to exhibit the prodigy of its powers? Spain fell before the gold of France, and not before her arms; she was lost through the venality of her commanders. Greece may have her traitors too: but treachery has not spread among her captains like the plague or the leprosy, as it did in Spain; nor has she a wily priesthood to terrify them with the rod of superstition, or to blench their cheeks and make their nerves tremble in the hour of action.

Greece abounds in men of talents, qualified to command*, and in able-bodied men with all the qualifications of soldiers, activity, enterprise, and courage; her natural resources, like those of Italy, are various and at hand; her harbours are innumerable; sailors swarm in every islet; and the cause for which she fights is liberty and life. What more, then, does she require? Consolidation of system, unity of action, and power in the executive government. The want of a constitutional government was early felt: for every man who could collect twenty or thirty followers called himself a captain, and made an insulated attack on the enemy just when and where he pleased; recognizing no superior officer, no higher authority, than himself. As the marauding and banditti sort of warfare which this occasioned would inevitably have been fatal, a provisional government was established to arrest the evil; and, on Colonel Voutier's authority†, we may repeat that it was attended with the happiest effects: — but it now appears that the executive power has either relaxed its energy or found its authority disregarded. Every petty chief, it seems, is supe-

* The present author expresses a very unfavorable opinion of General Colocotroni, whom he considers as actuated only by a desire of plunder, and whom he therefore does not scruple to call a *brigand*. Until he is 'crushed,' he adds, 'the cause of the Greeks will always be in danger.'

† See our Appendix to vol. ciii., first article.

rior in strength to the government, and every petty chief has his clan : so that the government, which dares not imprison even the most notorious murderer, alone is powerless. What is the remedy suggested ?

‘ Let those who compose this government form 20,000 guards to enforce obedience to the dictates of their acknowledged talents and patriotism ; then will the Greek government have it in their power to arrange and consolidate their system, and put their finances right, — then will the world see that the government is vigorous ; good and able men will multiply. The veil which now seems to conceal the Greek character from the rest of Europe will be torn away, and it will appear in all its native splendour ; the country will no longer be dishonoured, in the face of Europe, by the deeds of such men as Colocotroni, because a few armed followers have given to them a temporary power ; then will these men disappear, and such as Mavrocordato, as Conduriotti, as Miaulis, as Orlando, as Luriotti come forward and convince the world that *Greece has no want of men fit to govern*. The truth is, that all her able men have passed their lives in France, in Italy, or in study, and being totally ignorant of, and, by their habits, unfit for war, every common cut-throat of the mountains came forth, and, assuming the title of *General*, began a warfare, unworthy of the cause, and unable to free the country ; a style of warfare which will probably produce no great results, and consequently will never satisfy the rest of Europe, which daily perceives the want of system, so conspicuous in the transactions that have taken place. But the ignorance of these chiefs who now lead the Greeks to war is daily becoming more exposed ; the Greeks daily cease to confide in them, the peasantry are said (and I believe it) to look up to the members of government, whom they perceive to possess the honour and the abilities requisite to form the nation. “ Brigandage ” is sinking hourly in public estimation, and although neither Mavrocordato nor Conduriotti walk about hung round with cartridge-boxes, and pistols, and sabres ; and although, probably, neither of them possess a blunderbuss, still, it begins to be discovered by the Greeks that such men may have talents to cope with the Turks, — that men may be generals who are a bad shot, with a musket, and quite unacquainted with the use of the ataghan ; out this feeling, this excellent feeling, now rising among the Greek people, will be useless until those whose talents thus draw forth admiration are protected against the brigands by a regular force.

On the suggestion here thrown out we would observe, that, if the government be really so powerless as it is here represented, it would not be able to raise by its fiat these 20,000 guards, to enforce obedience to its commands and to control the chiefs : — but suppose them raised, and employed for the avowed purpose of putting down the unconstitutional power of the chiefs, who are all armed, and each with his respective retinue

retinue of armed followers, — is there no danger, or rather is it not certain, that a civil war among the Greeks themselves would arise, instead of the present war between the Greeks and the Turks? The latter would gladly foment any intestine divisions, and take advantage of them; and they would tamper with disaffected chiefs much more effectively, than with chiefs pluming themselves on their individual consequence in defending the country which is looking to their exploits for salvation. The predatory and feudal habits of the chiefs render them an impracticable class of people: but they are necessary to save their country from annihilation; and surely it would be a perilous experiment to make war on them, to goad and humiliate them, at the very moment when the existence of the country depends on their exertions, and the exertions of all. In every insurrectionary movement, great play is given to individual feelings and passions; and violently to control them is to excite a corresponding violence of re-action. The fury of the lion is not assuaged by the anger of his keeper, though it often is moderated by his caresses; and, in the case before us, it is acknowledged that 'the ignorance of the chiefs who now lead the Greeks to war is daily becoming more exposed; that the Greeks daily cease to confide in them; and the peasantry are said to look up to the members of government, whom they perceive to possess the honour and the abilities requisite to form the nation.' If this be a correct statement, the work is half done already; if the chiefs are already losing their authority, the number of their followers will consequently diminish; they will join the executive government, which must gather strength by their voluntary accession; and the dreadful hazard of exposing the country to a civil war, by raising an army of 20,000 guards to put them down, will be avoided.

At the close of this pamphlet we meet with a very amusing speculation. The author endeavors to defend Russia, in her ambition of possessing Constantinople, from the charge of being actuated by an 'unjust desire' to extend her territory. It is not territorial aggrandisement, he says, so much as a wish to invigorate and render flourishing the territory which she actually possesses, that leads her to covet Constantinople and the Dardanelles. Russia has arsenals in the Black Sea, and an imprisoned squadron on its waters; and she produces merchandize of every description and in vast abundance, which would descend from the Danube, the Pruth, the Nies-ter, the Don, and the Volga, into the Black Sea, where fleets of merchantmen would bear it to all parts of the Mediter-

raanean, and all parts of the world. Once give the Czar the capital of the Sultan for his inheritance, — once make Constantinople the capital of Russia, — and the latter will form a vast emporium of trade at the junction of the two continents, and have under her control two large internal seas to raise and exercise an innumerable progeny of seamen, and equip vast fleets with her own produce. — Notwithstanding this very praiseworthy and legitimate motive for coveting “the fair daughter of Rome” and her magnificent dowry, it is certainly very imaginable that some of the western powers of Europe, and England among the rest, might view with alarm this gigantic aggrandizement, however laudable and however modest in its object; and should this attempt be made while the Greeks and the Turks are at war, would it not be the policy of England to have both Greeks and Turks for her allies? The speculation is, then, for England to lend her aid to the Turks in defence of their capital against the Russians, and to support the Greeks in defence of their country against the Turks. Here is rather a ruffled skein presented to us, but there would be the more merit and ingenuity in unravelling it. The Greeks, ‘having no fear of England wishing to make them a province,’ it is presumed would welcome her alliance; and the Turkish and Greek nations are to lay aside their own quarrel, and be induced to fight in the same cause!! — that is, against Russia: — but surely the author forgets, all this time, that, if Russia had actually entertained the projects ascribed to her, she would long since have availed herself of the insurrection of the Greeks, and have co-operated with them in driving the Turks beyond the line of the Vardar, or *into* the gulf of Salonica; and afterward have obtained their co-operation in her meditated march to Constantinople; — all which she neglected to do.

Since the preceding paragraphs were written, the Greek Chronicle at Missolonghi has published an account of the Turkish capture of the island of Ipsara; from which it appears that neither the success of the one party nor the destruction of the other was by any means so complete, as the first accounts received from Smyrna led us to fear. The Ipsariots defended their post with incredible heroism; and it is now known that the island has been recaptured by the Greeks, who revenged themselves on the invaders with unsparing severity.

ART. X. *Suffolk Words and Phrases; or, an Attempt to collect the Lingual Localisms of that County.* By Edward Moor, F.R.S. F.A.S. &c. 12mo. pp. 525. 10s. 6d. Boards. Hunter.

THOSE who with Celsius and Leibnitz believe in the progressive desiccation of the sea, and who admit that the average level of the Baltic and of the German ocean has progressively sunken nearly five inches in a century, will have no difficulty in admitting that the estuary of the Ouse and the estuary of the Thames may once have been united in the neighbourhood of Saffron-Walden; and that Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex, then formed on the eastern coast of Britain a separate island which was called Thule. Claudian, mentioning a battle not far from Cambridge, says, "*Incaluit Pictorum sanguine Thule*;" thus recognizing Thule as the collective name of the district, and speaking of the native population as Picts, or East Goths. Suffolk being the central part of this district, it probably retains in a more unmixed form than elsewhere the ancient speech of the inhabitants. Certainly, in the western parts of Norfolk, the distinct dialect of the people from the fens has spread extensively; and, on the southern borders of Essex, the dialect is strongly tinged with Saxon and West-Gothic nomenclature. A Suffolk glossary, therefore, is a valuable and an important contribution to the geographical antiquities of the country, and may assist in tracing the connection of our primæval tribes with their continental progenitors. It appears, however, that the author of the volume before us has not strictly confined himself to Suffolkisms, but has recorded as such many vulgarisms which are quite as prevalent in other shires. From an advertisement at the end, we learn that this gentleman is a Major in the East India Company's service, and besides other publications is the author of a Hindu Pantheon, and of a treatise on Hindu Infanticide: so that his contributions to literature are various and laudable.

Provincialisms may be divided into three classes. 1. Some are mere archaisms, or local continuations of forms of expression once usual in the metropolis; these often occur in Shakespeare, and other popular writers of a former age, and may be found in provinces not only remote from each other, but not allied by any general resemblance of dialect. 2. Some are mere mis-pronunciations, and only appear to be not English because they must be mis-spelled in order to give the local pronunciation. 3. Some are truly the remains of an ancient patois, and were never accepted in the general language of the country. These last only are strictly intitled to the character of provincialisms: but, in the work before us,

us, many instances are given of all the three kinds. They are, however, remarkably well recorded, and explained by a comprehensive erudition in northern dialects and glossaries. A few instances, indiscriminately taken, will best explain the author's plan, and display his skill in execution.

' **CRACK.** A blow — or a threatened blow. " 'A yeow don't behave no butta I'll *crack* on te ye 'strues yeour alive." This may require translating : — If you behave no better I'll *crack* on to you as true as you're alive. Of our varied words of threat see under **AIN'T**. In a crack — in a trice — in a jiffy — are equivalent phrases.

' **CRACKLIN.** The hard skin of roast pork. Ice is said to *crackle* when a fracture runs from side to side of a pond.

' **CRAG.** The masses of marine shells (supposed to be antediluvian) both bivalve and univalve — common along the coasts, and for eight or ten miles inland, of Suffolk, imbedded in sand. A "Crag pet" is a valuable thing on "a heavy-land farm," — the decomposed shells and the sand acting chemically and mechanically on the land, over which good farmers spread it. But it is an erroneous practice to mix it, as we sometimes see, with dung.

' **CRAKE.** The Corn-crake, which see. The word is used also in the sense of boasting or bragging. "I don't *crake* about my character." — "You needn't *crake* about your character." It is in this sense, perhaps, that Tusser declares "Two good hay-makers — worth twenty *crakers*," p. 168.

' In Scottish, *Craik*, as well as the name of the Land-rail, means also, as a verb, "to denote the cry of a hen after laying." J. This is what we, and many others, I suppose, call *cackling*. Jamieson derives *Craik* from the Teutonic *Kraeck-en*, crepare, strepere.

' Nares gives the word in the sense of boasting, bragging; and shews that it is used by Spenser, and other old writers.

' **CRAKER.** A child's rattle. A good word, — derivable probably from an adoption of sound, — as in the Corn-crake, Bumble-bee, &c. A boaster. In Scottish *Crakkar* is the same; which Jamieson derives from the Belgic *Kraecker*, id. See **CRAKE**.

' **CRAMP-BONE.** The *Patella* of a sheep or lamb. This charm is still in use by some few individuals, though confidence in its efficacy has doubtless greatly decreased. It is carried in the pocket — the nearer the skin the better — of the credulous person, or laid under the pillow at night. I have heard that some of strong nerve, resolving to prevent the approach of so unwelcome an assailant as the cramp, have been known so temerarious as to wear the more potent spell of a human *patella*. But such a defiance of *natur* would, in these more pious days, be thought highly profane, — and, if ever worn, it was done most likely with great privacy and caution.

' **CRAMP-RINGS.** "The superstitious use of *Cramp-rings*, as a preservative against fits, is not entirely abandoned here. A recent instance has occurred where nine young men of the parish each subscribed a sixpence, to be moulden into a ring for a young woman

woman affected with this malady." GAGE'S *Hengrave*, 1822, p. 7.

Reference is made, on this subject, to Brand's *Popular Antiq.* ii. 598. The use of *Cramp-rings* in Suffolk has not come within my notice.

CRANCH, — or *Crunsh*, or *Skransh*. To break any thing to pieces, — especially a stone or bone between the teeth. See SKRANSH.

CRATCH. An old word for a manger, — formerly used in Suffolk, but believed to be now obsolete. In some early translations of Scripture the word is said to be used instead of manger. It occurs in *Popular Antiquities*, p. 281. See CAT'S CRADLE. Nares in his *Glossary* gives a curious article under CRATCH. It is from the French *Crèche*, — a manger, a crib. —

SAAGE. Rhyming with *brass*. Sauce, not merely oyster, apple, &c., accompaniments to cod's head, or goose, — but vegetables generally. Turnip or cabbage is *saace* to "biel'd beef." It is our term too for rudeness, or insolence of speech, *sauciness*. "Come, now, don't give us any a'yar *saace*."

SAANTEREN. Idling, loitering, sauntering. The latter word is common and general enough, — and the practice implied by this class of words, is now (1822) getting also too common and general in this heretofore industrious county. But let that pass. Our pronunciation is somewhat singular, as I have endeavoured to shew, in the mode of spelling the word. I do not think that I should have introduced it at all, not being local, but for the sake of giving the following quotation from Ray's *S. and E. Country Words*. "To *santer* about, or go *santering* up and down. It is derived from *Saincté Terre*, i.e. the Holy Land, because of old time, when there were frequent expeditions thither, many idle persons went from place to place upon pretence that they had taken, or intended to take, the cross upon them and to go thither. It signifies to idle up and down; to go loitering about." E. W. p. 84.

Dawdlin, *Nannaken*, *Nonnaken*, *Sawneyken*, and others of like import, are terms with which we reprove idle, unprofitable chaps.

SAAZ or SARS. Neighbours, friends, in a familiar way, from a farmer to his workmen, bespeaking their attention: — "I sah, Saaz." Probably *Sirs*; said, however, sometimes to women. "Cup, Sars, — store, store, — cup, cup." The latter perhaps an abbreviation of come-up. — It occurs frequently in the recent Scottish novels, addressed both to men and women. —

SAG or SEG. To bend, decline, droop. A roof bending or sinking from insufficient strength, or decay in the rafters, is said "to sag i' th' middle." One declining in health or years is poetically said to *sag*. "How is neighbour Jones?" "Why, a fare kedgy, — but 'a begin to sag, keinder."

It may be derived from *seg*, a reed or rush, proverbially easy to bend, as well as an emblem of dryness; which latter sense the word implies in several European tongues. See SEG. Shakespeare uses the word in a Suffolk sense: —

"The

“ The mind I sway by, and the heart I bear,
Shall never *sagg* with doubt, nor shake with fear.”

Macbeth, v. 3.

‘ The Scottish has “ to *segg*, to pull down, from the Icelandic *sig-a*, subsidere, and to *seyg*, to sink.” J.

‘ Nares says, “ To *sagg*, to hang down, as oppressed with weight; to *swag* is now used, and is perhaps more proper. To *sagg* on, to walk heavily.” We never use *swagg* in the sense of *sag*; but it is a Suffolk word. In addition to the passage above quoted from *Macbeth*, Nares gives several others —

— “ which when I blow,
Draws to the *sagging* dug milk white as snow.”

Brown's Brit. Past. ii. p. 143.

‘ “ When Sir Rowland Russet-coat, their dad, goes *sagging* every day in his round gascoynes of white cotton.”

Nash's Pierce Pennil. in *Cens. Lit.* vii. 15.

‘ *Dad* is commonly used by us for father.

‘ In an O. D. A. is “ to *sag*, to hang down on one side,” — and “ to *swag*, to force down, or to bear downwards as a weight does.” The latter is more our sense of *sag*.

‘ *SAH*. Says. “ Mr. Johnson he *sah*,” Mr. Johnson says. We have a habit of interpolating a redundant pronoun before a verb active in the third person. See *HE*.

‘ *SALES*. *SEELS*. Time, season. *Hayseel*, the time of hay-making. *Barsel*, or barley sale, is sometimes heard. *All sales*, at all times. “ He’s a shacking fellow, — a’s about all sales o’ the night,” — applicable to a suspected poacher, or to a servant of irregular habits.

‘ “ *Seel* or *Seal*, time or season. ‘ It is a fair *seel* for you to come at,’ i. e. a fair season or time; spoken ironically to them that come late. Essex. *Ab. A. S.* *Sæl*, time, — ‘ What *seel* of day? what time of day?’ *Ray*, E. W. p. 85.

‘ Since this was written I heard this question put by one farmer to another, enquiring the character of a servant, — “ How are his *seels* ?”

‘ *SALLOW*. A species of *salix*, very profitable to grow in moist grounds, for hurdles or any rough work. One species is called the water-sallow. It is an old, and probably not a very local word. The yellow hue of its flower may have been the origin of the word, descriptive of a sickly complexion. Such flowers we call *goslins*, which see. See *HULVA*, where Tusser recommends the *sallow* for rakes. We generally make our rake-heads and teeth of it. —

‘ *SALT EEL*. One of our numerous recreations, of which a list is given under *Moveall*. This is something like *hide and find*. The name of *Salt eel* may have been given it from one of the points of the game, which is to *baste* the runaway individual whom you may overtake, all the way home with your handkerchief twisted hard for that purpose. *Salt eel* implies, on board ship, a rope’s ending, and on shore, an equivalent process. “ Yeow shall have *salt eel* for supper,”

supper," is an emphatic threat, referring to the back rather than to the belly. —

' **SAVIN-TREE.** The *Juniperus sabina* of Linn. Supposed to have the power to procure abortion. Lyte says something to that purport of it.

— ' " And when I look
To gather fruit, find nothing but the *savin* tree,
Too frequent in nunne's orchards, and there planted,
By all conjecture, to destroy fruit rather."

MIDDLETON'S *Game of Chess*, C. 1. b.

' The above is from Nares. The notion, whether true or false I know not, that the *Savin* possesses the quality ascribed to it, is in full force in Suffolk. A few years ago, my gardener pointed out the plant to me, with an expression of abhorrence; and said that it ought to be eradicated by act of parliament. I had never before seen the lowly plant, — not a tree, — nor heard its bad character. Its character is not, however, universally bad; for in an O. D. A. is "*Savine*, an herb good to cure ulcers."

' **SAWNEY.** A silly, half-witted, idle lout, — hence

' **SAWNEYKEN.** Idling, lounging, sauntering. — "Heow yeow dew go sawneyken about." *Dawdling*, *nonnaken*, and *saunteren*, are words of similar import.

' **SAWZLES.** Slops or drinks, given injudiciously to sick persons.

' **SAY.** A taste, growing into a habit. Cows having broken into a field of clover, pigs into potatoes, &c., will have "got a say on't," and not easily kept out. It is also applied to any early irregularities.

' I never heard this word out of Suffolk, where it is still common. It occurs in the following passage in *Memoirs of the Court of Queen Elizabeth* :

' "The splendid hunt then concluded according to the established laws of the chase, by the offering of the knife to the princess or first lady of the field; and her *taking 'say* (so printed, I know not whence taken) of the buck, with her own fair and royal hand."

' *Say* or *sah* is also substituted for *says* or *said*, in the third person singular, — "John he say —," as is usual among us, and as is explained under **HAVE** and **SAH**. Looking latterly over Ray, I find it among his S. and E. country words, as in the following quotation: — "*Say* of it, i. e. taste of it. Suffolk. *Say* for *assay*, *peraphoeresin*, assay from the French *essayer*, and the Italian *assaggiare*, to try, or prove, or attempt; all from the Latin word *sapio*, which signifies also to taste." E. W. p. 84. In Scottish is "*sey* or *say*, a trial; an attempt of any kind." J.

' Nares has a long, and as usual, an instructive article on this word. In his second sense he approaches our Suffolk meaning, as it is fairly given by Ray.

' "Say for assay, test or specimen. * A say a specimen: say of it, deliba illud, præliba." E. Coles. Thus to give the say at court was for the royal taster to declare the goodness of the wine or dishes.

— " " Or

—— ‘ “ Or to take
A *say* of venison, or stale fowl by your nose.”
MASS. *Unnat. Comb.* iii. 1.

‘ It appears formerly to have meant, as well as taste, or relish,
as in *Lear*, v. 3.,

‘ “ And that my tongue some *say* of breeding breathes,”
any attempt or effort, especially at first; to try, in general; even,
as Nares remarks, to try the fitness of clothes; —

‘ “ Sh’ admires her cunning; and incontinent
‘*Sayes* on herself her manly ornament.”

Sylv. Dubart. p. 222.

‘ Our existing assay-master is hence derived.’

A displacement of the aspirate, an interchange of the *v* and *w*, a mis-pronunciation of the vowels, (each of which is lowered a note,) the omission of some inflexions, a whining accent, some anagrammatic mis-arrangements of consonants, and many contractions of two or more words into one, characterize many of the specimens adduced. We have not observed any notice of a common vulgarism, *tih rain*, *tih snow*, for it rains, or it snows: nor of *toant*, for it will not. *Fozy*, which is said of spungy turnips, is omitted; and many other words.

This volume is amusing as well as learned, and deserves to become a model for other provincial glossaries. The practice, however, of dividing our patois by the names of our shires, is not quite correct, because the same patois often overspreads many counties; and some provinces, especially the central, have a patois tintured with Welsh on the western side, and a patois tintured with Saxon on the eastern. A dialectic map of England, if we may so express ourselves, remains to be made. Chester and Oxford are said to be the places in which the best pronunciation prevails among the multitude: as in France, Blois, — in Italy, Sienna, — and in Germany, Dresden. In Greece, the Spartan dialect, having been first cultivated, passed for the true Greek; and the Attic, Ionic, Doric, and Æolic, for patois: to which grammarians ought to have added the Alexandrian, so conspicuous in the ecclesiastical writers. In England, the metropolitan dialect, as *commonly* spoken, is not the true English; for the cockneyisms of the Londoner are marked, impure, and offensive in genteel society. They deserve to be collected as a warning to the native, and an instruction to the antiquary. A strange slang, of Jewish origin apparently, pervades the vulgar, though not the burgher, classes of the metropolis at both extremities. The theatre and the pulpit tend to obliterate these varieties; and the charity-schools,

now so numerous, are producing a sensible change every where in the *talk* of the common people: so that no time should be lost in collecting the remaining phænomena of dialect, if it be wished to preserve the remaining traces of the distinct tribes which have been united into the British nation. Perhaps no other country is of so mixed a race; or consists of races so amalgamated. If we examine a directory in England, and refer the proper names of the individuals to the respective languages whence they are derived, the variety of the sources of our population will appear astonishing. London is like a funnel, into which every country pours some of the growth of its peculiar vineyard; and which sends back into every sea-port of the world some of the average mixture thus rendered apparently homogeneous. Its language has received words from every nation, which it re-exports into every emporium, imbedded in its own simple system of inflection, and thus adapted for general currency. English, in short, may hope to become the most universal medium of communication between the various nations of the earth; and those deserve well of their country, and of mankind, who contribute to diffuse its intelligibility and to complete its resources.

ART. XI. *The Remains of Robert Bloomfield*, Author of "The Farmer's Boy," "Rural Tales," &c. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1824.

THE circumstances under which these volumes are published give them a claim to our earliest and kindest attention. The success which attended the appearance of Bloomfield's earlier poems, more especially "The Farmer's Boy," must be in the recollection of many of our readers; and from that source, as well as from the liberality of his friends, the poet at one period enjoyed a very considerable income: but, towards the decline of his life, it was so much narrowed as to be insufficient for his own support and that of his family. Ill health, also, afflicted both him and his progeny; and latterly his affairs were found to be in a very embarrassed situation. His children, to whom their father's memory is very dear, immediately determined, with the assent of their friends, to dispose of the remnant of his little property, in order to satisfy the claims of his creditors; and, after this sale, the sum left to be divided among five persons, who composed his family, amounted only to 40*l.*, exclusive of their father's copy-rights, the proceeds of which have been mortgaged for the term of two years. The present '*Remains*' have

have therefore been printed, for the exclusive benefit of poor Bloomfield's family; and we need scarcely express a hope that the descendants of a writer, whose simple and beautiful poetry has been so rightly appreciated, may have no reason to complain either of the generosity or the justice of the public. In making this statement, it would be improper not to notice the honorable and excellent character which Bloomfield always maintained, among those to whom he was best known; and not to add that the only blame which can be attached to him, respecting the management of his resources, is that he sometimes bestowed on persons, whose wants were greater than his own, the mite which the more prudent and the less sensitive might have refused.

As to the biography of Bloomfield, we think it will be found to supply another proof of a fact on which it is painful to reflect; viz. that the possession of genius is seldom favorable to the happiness of the individual. Even when the external circumstances of the party are compatible with the habits of life and feelings to which such a temperament gives rise, we too frequently find that high genius is a bane rather than a blessing; but, when it is conjoined with poverty and dependance, it is almost impossible that the possessor of it can enjoy any thing like substantial happiness. To be thrown on the capricious bounty of a patron; to find the encouragement, which ought to be conceded as a right, bestowed as a favor; to possess the keenest sense of injustice, and to be the most exposed to its attacks; — such is the unhappy fate of the poor man of genius. With hopes which he cannot realize, and feelings which he in vain endeavors to suppress; with friends whom he cannot trust, and patrons whom he is often compelled to despise; his talents become to him a fertile source of disquiet and misery. The biography of Burns contains the same melancholy history. His situation in life was altogether at variance with the character of his mind, and his habits of feeling; and he was continually suffering under the wounded pride both of genius and of poverty, till the sentiment almost became morbid. Then arose the contest between the sense of imperious necessity and the consciousness of unrequited merit; a contest which ended in the destruction of the sufferer.

It may, therefore, be very sound philosophy to tell the poor man, who, endowed with this dangerous gift, has been captivated with its allurements, that he acted unwisely in forsaking his more humble and happier occupations: but who shall say that Burns ought not to have written his *Cotter's Saturday Night*, or that Bloomfield did wrong in delineating his beaut-

ful sketches of rural life and manners? Not they who have enjoyed the deep sensibility of the one, and the delightful simplicity of the other: — not they who have reaped all the benefit of the error. We are persuaded that the public will think and feel more justly; and that the appeal made to them on behalf of the family of Bloomfield will not be urged in vain.

The first of these volumes contains a number of short poetical pieces, a few of which have been already before the world in a fugitive shape. In point of merit, these little poems can scarcely be expected to equal the earlier efforts of the writer: but they still possess the same pleasing qualities which charmed us in *The Farmer's Boy* and the *Rural Tales*, truth of description, and simplicity of sentiment. The subsequent lines will be a sufficient specimen of the whole.

' A Neighbourly Resolution.

' With scythe, fresh sharpen'd, by his side,
To bring the ripen'd barley down,
One morning, when the dew was dried,
Thus musing with himself, John Brown
Stood, where of late,
His little gate
Was cover'd by an elm's broad shade: —
Ah! there thou liest, wide sheltering tree,
Beneath whose boughs, in youthful glee,
My first love-vow was made.

' Thou hast survived my wife, 'tis true,
Thy leaves have sigh'd to me, alone;
Have sigh'd in autumn's yellow hue —
I've felt thy lessons, every one.
Of thee bereft,
There may be left,
(Though 'twas no friend that cut thee down,)
There may be left in store, I say,
Some joys — for Goody Gascoin may
Be kind to neighbour Brown.

' I've lived alone, she's done the same,
Through summer's heat and winter's cold;
I trust we still might feel love's flame,
Though girls and boys may call us old:
O could we be
Embower'd by thee!
Vain wish! my poor old elm is down:
May shadeless labour and sour ale,
Far from this stream, and this sweet vale,
Plague him that robb'd John Brown.

‘ But though, ’midst clust’ring leaves, no more
 The robin gives his morning trill;
 Winter may bring him to my door,
 And Goody Gascoin, — *if she will*.
 I’ll know her mind;
If so inclined,
 ’Tis death alone shall make us part:
 And though his cot’s sweet shade is down,
 This chara she’ll find in neighbour Brown,
 Gay cheerfulness of heart.’

We observe, at the conclusion of the poetic fragments, a few short pieces by Mr. Charles Bloomfield, the poet’s eldest son, who proves himself to be no degenerate offspring of a gifted father. Yet we would, with all kindness, suggest to him the hazard of yielding to the impulses of that hereditary poetic temperament which he appears to possess: but we have said sufficient on this subject above, to prevent the necessity of pursuing it any farther. We subjoin a specimen of this young man’s talents.

‘ *To a Sigh.*

‘ What causeth thee? — for what thou art
 The heaving breast bespeaks: —
 The index to some silent thought,
 Till gathering fulness breaks
 ‘ The feeble power of self-control;
 And thus exposed we see
 The workings of the secret soul; —
 But what that thought may be
 ‘ Is still conceal’d: — is it the gleam
 Of memory on the past —
 The sadder or the brighter theme,
 That o’er the mind is cast?
 ‘ Is it the glowing smile of hope —
 The frown of dark despair;
 Or disappointment’s torturing pang,
 That has its station there?
 ‘ Is it the magic pow’r of love,
 That steals with soft surprise
 Upon the heart — its hopes and fears —
 That bids thee thus to rise?
 ‘ Thy cause, though hidden, what thou art
 The heaving bosom shows:
 The channel to some inward thought
 As silently it flows.’

Volume ii. is filled with various fragments and short pieces in prose; among which the most important and the most pleasing

pleasing is the 'Journal of a Tour down the River Wye.' It is, in fact, the first sketch for the beautiful and picturesque poem which Bloomfield afterward published under the same title. Of the 'Anecdotes and Observations' which occupy the next portion of the volume, those that relate to natural history and scenery are often curious and interesting, and display strong powers of observation. A short extract will be a sufficient proof of the keenness of this faculty in Bloomfield.

'I saw last May, for the first time in my life, the Exhibition at Somerset House. In the room set apart for statuary, the most natural, and consequently the most beautiful thing in the room, was an infant on its mother's lap, making part of a monumental group by Nollekens. I noticed that every woman who approached it put on such a look, as pleaded powerfully for their own right feelings, and for the artist. I never felt more from any work of art than from that.'

Let us not omit to notice an agreeable little *jeu d'esprit* under the title of 'The Bird's and Insect's Post-office,' in prose and verse; which would, we think, have been highly prized by Mr. Newberry. The following pathetic letter will serve as a specimen:

'From the Pigeon to the Partridge.

'What a long time it is since I received your kind letter about the ripening corn, and the dangers you were presently to be subject to, with all your children. You will think me very idle, or very unfeeling, if I delay answering you any longer; I will therefore tell you some of my own troubles, to convince you, that I have had causes of delay, which you can have no notion of until I explain them. You must know, then, that we are subject to more than the random gun-shot in the field, for we are sometimes taken out of our house a hundred at a time, and put into a large basket to be placed in a meadow, or spare plat of ground suiting the purpose, there to be murdered at leisure. This they call "shooting from the trap*," and is done in this way. We being imprisoned, as I have said, as thick as we can stand in the basket, a man is placed by us, to take us out *singly*, and carry us to a small box, at the distance of fifty or sixty yards; this box has a lid, to which is attached a string, by means of which, he, the

* I once witnessed this silly and barbarous sport; and saw at least a score of maimed and wounded birds upon the barns, and stables, and out-houses of the village. I was utterly disgusted, and it required a strong effort of the mind to avoid wishing that one of the gunners, at least, had hobbled off the ground with a dangling leg, which might for one half year have reminded him of the cowardly practice of "shooting from the trap."

man (if he is a man), can draw up the lid, and let us fly at a signal given. Every sensible pigeon of course flies for his life, for, ranged on each side, stand from two to four or six men with guns, who fire as the bird gets upon the wing; and the cleverest fellows are those who can kill most;—and this they call *sport*! I have sad cause to know how this sport is conducted, for I have been in the trap myself. Only one man, or perhaps a boy, fired at me as I rose; but I received two wounds, for one shot passed through my crop, but I was astonished to find how soon it got well; the other broke my leg just below the feathers. O what anguish I suffered for two months,—at the end of which time it withered and dropped off. So now instead of running about amongst my red-legged brethren, as a pigeon ought, I am obliged to hop like a sparrow. But only consider what glory this stripling must have acquired, to have actually fired a gun, and broke a pigeon's leg!! Well, we both know, neighbour Partridge, what the Hawk is; he stands for no law, nor no season, but eats us when he is hungry. He is a perfect gentleman when compared to these "Lords of the Creation," as I am told they call themselves; and I declare to you upon the honour of a pigeon, that I had much rather be torn to pieces by the Hawk than be shut up in a box at a convenient distance to be shot at by a dastard. You partridges are protected during great part of the year by severe laws, but whether such laws are wise, merciful, or just, I cannot determine, but I know that they are strictly kept, and enforced by those who make them. Take care of yourself, for the harvest is almost ripe. I am your faithful

'ONE-LEGGED FRIEND AT THE GRANGE.'

We must now take a last farewell of Robert Bloomfield, which we cannot do without a few words expressive of our esteem for his character and his talents. It was his fortune, on his first appearance before the public, to experience all the triumphs of popularity: but, amid the multitude of more modern favorites, his works have within these few years fallen into comparative obscurity. A taste for poetry of a higher character, perhaps, but not a purer, has been excited; and the reader who takes delight in the glowing imagination and rich imagery of Moore, or in the dark but splendid pictures of human nature which Lord Byron has drawn, finds little of the same excitement in the rustic truth and simplicity of Bloomfield's verse. Yet, among all our poets, few have painted from nature herself with his precision and fidelity; and we feel persuaded that his pictures are, and will long continue to be, rightly appreciated by every person of natural and untainted feelings.

ART. XII. *Ancient Mysteries described*, especially the English Miracle Plays, founded on Apocryphal New Testament Story, extant among the unpublished Manuscripts in the British Museum; including Notices of Ecclesiastical Shows, the Festivals of Fools and Asses, — the English Boy-Bishop, — the Descent into Hell, — the Lord Mayor's Show, — the Guildhall Giants, — Christmas Carols, &c. By William Hone. With Engravings on Copper and Wood. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Hone.

Now that the Anglican church, like the Jewish and the Romish, is extending the conquests of its faith and the affiliations of its communion into countries not under the civil government of the British sovereign, it is become more an object of curiosity to study the methods of conversion which gave to the church of Rome so extensive an ascendancy over the barbarians of northern Europe. They were nearly illiterate nations, when Christianity was introduced to their attention; and it was principally by dramatic exhibitions, performed in churches and convents, that the leading incidents of Scripture-history, and the prominent miracles of evangelic record, were first rendered familiar to the popular memory. These sacred dramas were mostly written and delivered in Latin: but, by degrees, partial vernacular versions of the dialogue were provided to explain the exhibited pageants to the wondering multitude. Thus arose those mysteries and miracle-plays which migrated at length from the church to the theatre, and there became obnoxious to the clergy; who no longer derived emolument from the show, and were frequently alarmed with good reason for the dignity of the personages so dragged on the stage. Not all the Catholic countries, however, have dismissed these Scripture-plays from their protection: for in Spain, and at Vienna, the *autos sacramentales* of Calderone are still performed; and, were such pieces modernized by a poet of taste and genius, they might be so managed as to form a regular Sunday-pastime. In the Temple at Jerusalem, pageants of this kind were given in Greek, with all the magnificence of the modern opera; and a successful trip has been preserved among the Apocrypha of our Bibles, as the Song of the Three Children. The *Prophecies of Daniel* are to this day a favorite spectacle at Madrid, and perhaps they preserve fragments of scenes more antient than the origin of Christianity.

It was natural that the monastic orders should provide appropriate representations for the several festival-days, on which they wished to convene the people. Thus at Christmas-time they would select the mysteries of the Nativity, the Adoration of the Shepherds and the Magi, and the Massacre of the

Innocents: — at Easter, they would perform the mysteries of the Passion, the Resurrection, and the Ascension; — and, on the birth-day of their patron-saint, they would exhibit the miracles related in his legendary history. When a sovereign prince, also, or any distinguished person, came to visit a great city, it was usual for the various monastic brotherhoods to concur in exhibiting some holy play. The pilgrims, who were present on these occasions, often carried home the outline of a new pageant; and by degrees wandering pilgrims formed themselves into strolling companies of Scripture-players, filled a waggon with the necessary scenery and decorations, and exhibited successively in different places the stock-pieces of their pious repertory: such as the Crucifixion, the Descent into Hell, and the Last Judgment. In 1402, a body of pilgrims of this kind was licensed by the court of France, under the denomination of *Confrères de la Passion*; and they went about acting the Bible from beginning to end, with universal applause. During the reign of our Henry V., this institution was imitated in England, and the traditional characters of the French apostles, among whom Saint Andrew is always the Merry-man, were handed across the Channel. With the most awful subjects the lowest plesantries were mingled, and only the goodness of the intention can apologize for the approach which was thus made to impiety. The pilgrim-players, moreover, not having the same interest in the respectability of the sacerdotal order as the domiciliated clergy, more often uttered jokes at their expence: as in the French mystery of Saint Christopher, for instance, where devils are introduced, who bring into the realms below the soul of a priest, whom Satan thus introduces to Lucifer:

“ *Lucifer, voici venaison
Qui ne veut que vin et vinaigre ;
Je ne sais si elle est de saison,
C'est un bigard qui est bien maigre.
Je l'ai empoigné à vépre :
Si lui faut faire sa raison,
Puisqu'on le tient, le maitre prêtre ;
Car il est pire que poison.*”

A collection of the best extant copies of the principal mysteries, some of which may occur in Latin, others in French, and others in English, in their least adulterated form, would throw light on the history of religious culture, and also on that of the drama and of literature. Mr. Hone has not undertaken this task in its most comprehensive form; but, from motives of decorum apparently, he has confined himself to the re-publication of extracts from such mysteries

as

as are founded on legendary narratives, and are preserved in the British Museum as having been performed at Coventry. These interludes, ascribed by Warton to Higden of Chester, are eight in number: the first relates the Birth of Mary: the second, her Education in the Temple; the third, her Espousal with Joseph; the fourth, her Incarnation of the Trinity; the fifth, Joseph's Jealousy; the sixth, Elizabeth's Visit; the seventh, the Trial of Mary and Joseph; and the eighth, the Birth of Christ. All these may be considered as the several acts of a Gothic drama representing the Nativity. Perhaps the most extraordinary scene, and that which involves the boldest personifications, occurs in the fourth act; which we will quote in order to give our readers some idea of this forgotten class of writings.

' From the Cotton MSS.

' Contemplation begins the play with a Prologue: then,
' *VIRTUE* prays God to repel the malice of the devil, and take man into grace.

' *GOD* comes forward, saying, that the supplications of all have reached him:

' *TRUTH* tells God he will not leave him, — reminds God that he promised, when Adam sinned, "that he shulde deye & go to helle," — that to restore him is impossible, and prays that he be tormented for ever.

' *MERCY* intercedes to God for compassion, says that all heaven and earth cry for mercy, and calls the devil "a helle hownde."

' *JUSTICE* marvels what moves *MERCY* so much; and assigns as a good reason for man's eternal punishment,

' That man having offended God, who is endless,
Therefore, his endles punishment may never sees;
Also, he forsoke his maker, that made hym of clay,
And the devyl to his mayst' he ches,
Shulde he be sayd? nay! nay! nay!

' *MERCY* says, that there is too much vengeance in Justice, — that the "frellesse" of mankind should be considered, — and that the mercy of God is without end.

' *PEACE* exhorts them not to quarrel, and says that she approves *Mercy's* supplication, —

' For, yff mannys soule shulde abyde in helle,
Be twen god & man euyr shulde be dyvyssyon,
And than myght not I, pes, dwelle.

' She proposes to refer the whole to God, to which the others assent, and *films* (*GOD THE SON*) entering, *PEACE* says,

' Her is God! now her' is vnyte;
Hefne & erth is plesyd with pes.

GOD THE SON is inclined to *PEACE*. He says, that

' If Adam had not deyd, peryschyd had ryghtwysnes;
And also, trewth had be' lost ther by:

Giff another deth come not, mercy shulde perysch,
 Than pes wer' exyled ffynyal; ;
 So tweyn dethis must be, yow fowr to cherysch.
 ¶ But ye that shal deye ye, must knawe,
 That, in hym, may be non iniquyte,
 That helle may holde hym be no lawe,
 But, that he may pas, at hese lyberte,
 Ower swyche, on his p'vyde, & se ;
 And hese deth, for mannys deth, schal be redemp'con.
 All hefne, & erthe, seke now ye :
 Plesyth it yow this con'clusyon ?

‘ *Veritas*. — I trowth, hane sowte the erthe, with out & with inne,
 &, in sothe, there kan non be fownde,
 That is of o day byrth, with owt synne;
 Nor, to that deth, wole be bownde.

‘ *M'ia*. — I, mercy, have ronne the hevynly regyon rownde,
 And ther is non of that charyte,
 That, ffor man, wole suffre a deadly wounde ;
 So I can nott wete how, this schal be.

‘ *Iusticia*. — Sur' ; I can fynde non sufficyent ;
 ffor servauntys vn profytable we be, ech on ;
 He love nedyth to be ful ardent,
 That, for man, to helle wolde gon.

‘ *Pax*. — That God may is non but on ;
 Therfor, this, is be hys a vyse ;
 He that gaff this co'nsell, lete hy' geve the comferte a lon,
 For the conclusyon, in hym, of all these lyse.

‘ *Filius*. — It peyneth me, that man I mad,
 That is to seyn, peyne I must suffre for.
 A counsel of the trinite, must be had,
 Whiche of us shal man restor'.

‘ *Patr.* — In your wysdam, son, man was mad thor,
 And in wysdam was his temptac'on,
 Therfor, sone, sapyens ye must ordeyn her' for',
 & se how, of man, may be salvac'on.

‘ *Filius*. — ffadyr ; he, that schal do this, must be both god & man ;
 Lete me se how I may wer' that wede ;
 And syth, in my wysdam, he began,
 I am redy to do this dede.

‘ *Spir'us s'c'us*. — I, the holy gost, of yow tweyn do p'cede ;
 This charge I wole take on me :
 I, love, to your lover, schal yow lede ;
 This is the assent of our unyte.

‘ *M'ia*. — Now is the loveday mad, of us fowr, fynia'ly :
 Now may we leve in pes, as we were wonte,
Misericordia & veritas obviaverunt sibi,
Iusticia & pax osculate sunt

[& hic osculabunt pariter omnes.]

‘ GOD THE FATHER directs the Angel GABRIEL to go to MAR-
 at Joseph's ; in Galilee ; and GOD THE SON instructs Gabriel to

‘ Say that she is with owte wo, & ful of grace,
 And that I, the son of the godhed, of her schal be bor’.
 Hyge the, thou wer’ ther’ a pace,
 ellys we schal be ther, the be for’,
 I haue so gret hast, to be man thor’;
 In that mekest & purest virgyne,
 Sey her, she shal restor,
 Of yow Aungellys, the grett knyne.

‘ GOD THE HOLY GHOST, adds,

¶ And, if she aske the howe it myth be,
 lette her, I, the holy gost, schal werke at this;
 Sche schal be savyd thorwe our unyte.
 In tokyn, her bareyn cosyn Elyzabeth, is
 Qwyk with childe, in her’ grett age, I wys;
 Sey her’, to vs, is no thyng impossible,
 Her’ body schal be so ful fylt, with blys,
 That she schal sone thynke this sownde credyble.

‘ GABRIEL departs. He then appears to the Virgin, with this lutation :

‘ Heyl! — fful of grace, God is with the!
 Amonge all women blyssyd art th’u!
 Her’ this name Eva, is turnyd Aue,
 That is to say, with owte sorwe ar ye now!

¶ Thow sorwe, in yow, hath no place,
 Yet of joy lady ye nede more;
 Therfore I adde, and sey, ful of grece,
 ffor so ful of grace was nevyr non bore;
 Yet who hath grace he nedyth kepyng sor’,
 Therfor’ I sey God is with the,
 Which schal kepe yow endlessly thor’;
 So amonge all women blyssyd are ye!

‘ Mary says she is troubled at the greeting with “ grett sham-
 ness.”

Gabryel. — Mary, in this, take ye no drede,
 For at God, grace fownde hane ye;
 Ye schal conceyve, in yo’ wombe, in dede,
 A childe, the sone of the trynyte;
 His name, of yow, Jh’u clepyd schal be;
 He schal be grett, the son of the hiest, clepyd of kende,
 &, of his fadyr, davyd, the lord schal geve hy the se,
 Reynyng i’ the hous of Jacob, of which regne schal be n’
 ende.

Maria. — Aungel; I sey to yow,
 In what maner of wyse schal this be?
 ffor know’nng of man I haue none now;
 I haue evyr mor kept, & schal, my virginyte;
 I dowte not the wordys ye han seyd to me,
 But, I aske howe it schal be do’?

‘ Gabryel.

- *Gabryel*. — The holy gost schal com, fro above, to the ;
& the vertu of hy', hyest, schal schadu yu.
- He directs her to visit Elizabeth, her aged cousin, who is in
the "sexte monyth of her passage."
[*Her the Aungel makyth a lytyl restynge, & Mary be-
holdyth hy', & the Aungel seyth,*]
- The Holy Ghost
Abydyth thin answer, and thin assent.
Thor'we wyse werke of dyvinyte,
the secunde p'sone, verament,
Is mad man, by fraternyte
With inne thi self, in place present.
- He acquaints her that "all the blyssyd spyrytys, all the go^{de}
levers, the chosyn sowlys that ar in helle & byde Jesu,"
- Thin answer desyr to her ;
And thin assent to the incarnac'on :
Gyff me my' answer', now, lady der' ?
- *Maria*. — With all mekenes I 'clyne, to this a corde ;
Bowynge down my face, with all benyngnyte.
Se her, the hand mayden of our.lorde,
Aftyr thi worde be it don to me.
- *Gabryel*. — Gramercy ! my lady ffre ;
Gramercy ! of yo' aunswer on hyght ;
Gramercy ! of yo'r grett humylyte ;
Gramercy ! the', lanterne of lyght !
[*Her' the holy gost descendit, with iij. bemys, to o' lady ; th- =
sone of the godhed, nest, with iij. bemys, to the holy gost =
the ffadyr, godly, with iij. bemys, to the sone ; And so entre =,
al thre, to her bosom ; & Mary seyth,*]
- A ! now I fele, in my body be,
Parfyte god, & parfyte man ;
Havyng al schapp of chyldly carnalyte : —
Evyn, all at onys, thus God be gan !
- ¶ Nott takynge fyrst o membyr, & sythe a nother,
But parfyte childhod ye have a non ;
Of your hand mayden, now, ye have made your modyr,
With owte peyne in flesche & bon !
Thus conceyved nevyr woman non,
That evyr was beynge in this lyff ;
O my' hyest ffadyr, in your tron,
It is worthy your son, ndw my son, have a pr'ogatyff !
- ¶ I cannot telle what joy, what blysse,
Now I fele in my body.
Aungel Gabryel, I thank yow for thys ;
Most mekely recomende me to my faders mercy.
To haue be' the modyr of God, fful lytyl wend I,
Now, my' cosyn Elyzabeth ffayn wold I se,
How sche hath consevid, as ye dede specyfy.
Now, blyssyd be the hyg trynyte !

‘ *Gabryel.* — Far’ weyl turtyl; Goddys dowter der’;
 Far’ wel Goddys modyr; I the honowr;
 Far’ wel Goddys sustyr, & his pleyng fer’;
 Far’ wel Goddys chawmer, & his bowr!

‘ *MARY* returns Gabriel’s farewell, and says,

‘ I undyrstande, by inspyrac’on,
 That ye knowe, by synguler p’uylage,
 Most of my son’ys Incarnac’on:

I p’y you take it in to vsage,
 Be a custom’ ocupac’on,
 To vesitye me, ofte, be mene passage;
 Your p’sence is my comfortac’on.

‘ *GABRIEL* courteously accepts the invitation, commends himself to “the trone of the trinyte,” and ascends to “hefne,” with an Ave: —

‘ *Ave MARIA!* *gr’a plena* } *Ang’li cantando ista sequentia.*
d’us tecu’ uy go sesena }

To these Mysteries are attached copious illustrations, in which the obsolete words are explained, the recondite allusions are elucidated, analogous works are compared, and interesting extracts are made from scarce manuscripts, both of their illuminated decorations and their singular contents. Indeed, the engravings which adorn and explain this volume are alike numerous and instructive.

‘ Heywood,’ says the author, ‘in his “Four P’s,” though a stern Roman Catholic, exposes with the humour of Eulenspiegel, the tricks played on the credulous fondness of the ignorant for reliques, and ridicules the greediness and craft of the preaching friars in their pious frauds. He makes the Pardoner produce “the blessed Jawbone of All-halowes,” on which the Poticary swears,

‘ — by All-halowe, yet methinketh
 That All-halowe’s *breath* stinkith.

‘ *Pardoner.*

‘ Nay sirs, beholde, heer may ye see
 The great toe of the *Trinitie*.
 Who to this toe any money vowth,
 And once may role it in his mouth,
 All his life after, I undertake,
 He shall never be vext with the tooth ake.’

A great many curious traits of this kind are scattered in Mr. Hone’s commentary, which will be read with perpetual amusement. It is subdivided into eleven chapters, concerning the Trinity, the Brethren of the Trinity, the Christmas Carols, the Illuminations depicting Apocryphal Subjects, the Descent into Hell, the Feast of Fools, the Boy-Bishop, the Lord

Lord Mayor's Show, the Giants in Guildhall, and other matters connected with the origin and history of Mysteries.

A glossary, an index, and some addenda, complete the volume: which agitates a topic that is not indeed overlooked in Warton's History of English Poetry, (see, for instance, the ninth and sixteenth sections of his second volume,) but that is not treated there with all the detail and document of which it was worthy. — We advise Mr. Hone to continue his meritorious researches; to give us similar analytical sketches of the more important Scripture-dramas which remain in manuscript; and, above all, to prolong his entertaining commentaries, and to diversify yet more his motley illustrations. A series of such volumes as this cannot but be welcomed by a curious public.

ART. XIII. *The Night before the Bridal*, a Spanish Tale:— Sappho, a Dramatic Sketch; — and other Poems. By Catharine Grace Garnett. 8vo. pp. 217. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1824.

THE manifestation of female poetical talent, for some time past so conspicuous among us, has more recently shone with peculiar force and splendor; and to the names which we have so frequently had occasion to introduce with commendation in our pages, we have now the pleasure to add another which will not reflect discredit on the list. So numerous, however, within a short period, have been the lady-votaries at the muse's shrine, and they have exhibited so great a variety of genius, that we took up the volume before us with no very sanguine expectations. The surprize therefore was the more agreeable, and not the less because it is rare, when we found that the perusal which we had commenced as a task began by degrees to awaken our interest, and in some places almost to delight us. Indeed, we are now prepared to assert that numerous passages in the dramatic sketch of 'Sappho' do not yield, in classic and poetic truth and beauty, to many of the most favorite pieces of our existing bards. We speak thus in general terms, without particularizing those bards: for we are not wont to indulge in a blind deference for established names, and would judge of excellence as we find it: entering our protest against the careless or inferior productions of those who enjoy the highest reputation, and receiving and acknowledging with pleasure any demonstrations of superior power and genius in those who fully deserve, though they may not yet have obtained, a place in the rank to which they aspire. Though

Though gifted with the finest powers, we may remark of these,
with Beattie's Minstrel,

" Ah who can say how hard it is to climb

The steep where Fame's proud temple shines afar :"

for true it is that the loftiest and most finely strung spirits, destitute of fortune and other happy chances of success, may linger long and fade away, unappreciated and unknown at last ; while others, of inferior growth, may bask in the sunshine of courtly honor, ease, and prosperity.

As an earnest that, in the present instance, we have not over-rated the merits which we would willingly bring into view, and that we have not been misled by undue sympathy or partiality, we shall allow some of this lady's poetry to speak for itself ; leaving our readers to discern and to appreciate the several points of beauty or to detect the blemishes which may be apparent.

The ' Night before the Bridal ' is a somewhat highly wrought but very spirited and poetical representation of disappointed passion : its story is well told, the interest is well supported, and the incidents are equally unexpected and natural. The betrayed heroine, hearing of her lover's approaching nuptials with another lady, in a moment of phrenzied indignation is about to sacrifice him to her wounded honor : but her full soul relents when she beholds him, and the dagger falls from her grasp. He is assassinated, however, in the same evening, by another hand ; and her former communication with him being known, she is suspected of the act, tried, and condemned to suffer death. — Such is simply the ground-work of a story out of which the writer has wrought a beautiful poem, enriched with many fine descriptions and illustrations ; and exhibiting many natural and pathetic touches, that display no common power over the imagination and the heart. Of a few of these leading portions we propose to give two or three specimens ; reserving, however, some small space for the still more classic beauties of ' Sappho.' The following is a picture of desertion ; and let it be recollected that it comes from a fair, a young, and an unpractised hand :

' He had abandon'd her despite his vow,
The hour was come — hers must be heeded now !
The hour was come ! she was renounced — disgraced —
Branded with shame which might not be effaced :
The vengeance of the Moor — the pride of Spain,
Met in her heart, and madden'd every vein ;
And there was mingled there, in every thrill,
That crowning anguish — how she lov'd him still !

Match



Match me — ye records vast of human grief,
 By fiction framed, or stern truth register'd,
 Surpassing, men might say, their calm belief,
 Match me with this — and if ye have a word
 Speaking in light'nings, hither bring its aid,
 To paint the horrors of a heart betray'd;
 A woman's heart — extreme in love and hate,
 Left by the worshipp'd spoiler desolate;
 If man receives from man the insult dire,
 He turns on him and slays him in his ire;
 If woman frets him, from her frown he flies
 And seeks his solace in her rival's eyes;
 But who is her avenger? — who, when she
 Has cause of wrath, resents her injury?
 Not her own hand — 'tis honour in the strong,
 But murder when the weak revenge their wrong;
 The world but leaves her this, by wave, or bowl,
 To burst the bonds of its unjust control:
 Or linger on beneath its withering sneer,
 Till the heart breaks on its untimely bier!
 Thus felt lost Helena. — The night wore on,
 And dawn'd upon her griefs the morning sun.
 She sat with ghastly look — her brow yet proud,
 For even in anguish was her soul unbow'd.
 The deep convulsive throbbing of her breast
 Heaved the dark drapery of her shroud-like vest;
 'Twas meet for marriage-robe! — She laugh'd in scorn:
 To-morrow's sun would hail his nuptial morn;
 To San Paolo's shrine the train would come —
 Up sprung she from her seat, as if despair
 Had broke the marble spell — or from the tomb
 The dead had risen to hear their final doom:
 With one wild shriek which rent the startled air,
 She cried, "Leontio! — I will greet thee there!"

The interview between the guilty lovers displays much ability, as well as some youthful inaccuracies:

' He shrunk beneath the vengeance of her eye,
 There was nought earthly like to it. A cry —
 A craven cry escaped him — he had met
 His foe undaunted — so would meet him yet:
 Had faced the battle in its darkest lower,
 Defied, and even woo'd the frown of fate;
 But he had never braved a woman's hate;
 And *that* subdued him. Never till that hour
 Had he felt fear come o'er him: — he had need,
 For she had nerved her sinews for a deed —
 How shall I write it! Forth from her dark vest,
 Flash'd the bright steel — 'twas raised — 'twas aim'd — it fell.
 Merciful God! ah! no, not on his breast —
 But to the earth. Her heart was woman's still,
 The thought was murd'rous — but she could not kill!

The

The conflict past, she fell — her dark hair wreathed
Around her form, — nor moved, nor look'd, nor breathed.'

For justness of sentiment and description, however, the opening lines of the third canto are more striking, while they are equally characterized by their truth and power of observation :

' Night! thou hast other tales than those which Love
Delights to tell, of toyings in the grove;
Thy stillness framed for man's serene repose,
By him perverted, multiplies his woes.
Thy star-lit veil, descending o'er the earth,
Becomes the signal of the Hydra's birth.
Forth from thy dark and solitary walks
To snatch her morsel, pale-eyed Famine stalks.
Lust riots wild, and Malice wreaks conceal'd
Her deadly hate, where hand is none to shield.
Foul Slander flings abroad with viewless hand
The baneful scroll which is to blast and brand;
And Theft, and Fraud, and Folly's wanton brood
Infest the stillness of thy solitude.
Such are the nights of cities! Seek those haunts —
Far from the great and gay — where still her rights
Nature asserts — ye'll witness other nights; —
Man rests secure — few are his cares and wants,
Sweet are his hours of toil — his homeward way,
O'er moonlight meads, through vineyards deep, doth lie;
Whilst gay careering 'neath the autumnal sky,
The wild birds sing their simple roundelay.
His path no watchman guards, but one mute friend
With unbought love doth on his steps attend.
His cot, 'midst sheltering groves, rears to the moon
Its time-stain'd walls, and thatch of deepening brown;
His shadow seen — his babes run forth to meet
Their sire's return, with baby welcome sweet,
Their mother smiles her joy — his hearth glows warm,
He sleeps in bliss, nor dreams of coming harm.'

If these few quotations may be deemed flattering to Miss G.'s poetic taste and ability, — as, in spite of some little blemishes, we think they are, — one or two scattered specimens from her 'Sappho' will place her merits in a still superior light.

' *Phaon.* Mark in the east
The horizon brightens with a roseate hue,
Flinging its faint reflections o'er the waves.
Lo! from her Cynthian altars comes
Crescented Dian — daughter of great Jove.

' *Sappho.* How swiftly fly the hours! Brief time it seems,
Since, standing on this very spot, we hail'd

Her



Her last fair rising from her eastern shrine,
 And watch'd her whilst she journey'd to the west,
 Where, in the ocean's haze, her blushing brow,
 As in a bridal veil, she did conceal,
 Like old Icarus' daughter on the shore;
 Veiling her fond shame from her father's eyes.
 How brief the hours! She sinks to rise again
 Each night on her dominion o'er the skies, —
 But we, born but to gleam and pass away,
 When spent the limits of our fleeting lives,
 Hang, like sweet Iris' many-colour'd bow,
 Our days as varied as its blended haze,
 Baseless between earth's fabric and the heavens.
 But Love! immortal Love, has lent his smile —
 The golden light that gilds the changeful hues, —
 The first to brighten and the last to fade:
 And Beauty with her roseate blush is there,
 To crown our cup of evanescent joy.

' *Phaon*. 'Twould seem thy emblem of existence bea~~u~~eth
 No dark'ning line of sorrow in its zone.

' *Sappho*. Ay, but it doth, alas! and I will liken
 That tenderest tint of sapphire to thine eyes,
 When I have seen them tremulous with tears.
 But thy tears are not all of grief, untemper'd
 By the warm ray of passion; thou hast wept
 When I have sung to thee in Lydian mode, —
 And I have felt them fall upon my heart
 As evening dews descend on Ætna's groves.

[*A nightingale starts into voice from a neighbouring* ~~re~~ *ret.*
 Hymn'st thou pale Hecate, minstrel of the night?
 Wild are thy notes as lay by Syrinx tuned,
 And soft as those the lyre of Orpheus breathed,
 When the caressing winds did steer its course
 From Hebrus' savage shores to thine Methymna.
 Daughter of Pandion, thou'rt no hireling bard, —
 No rude profaner of Euterpe's reed: —
 I will essay a rival strain with thee.

' *Sappho sings*. Hail to thee, Spirit of the Univer~~s~~ *e!*
 Immortal ray of beauty, thou that rovest
 For ever and for ever round our shores.
 Hail to thee, Nature! veil'd in deep'ning shades,
 Reposing calm beneath the watchful stars.
 Hail to thee, Cynthia! smiling o'er the seas,
 Whose grateful billows lift their crystal arms
 And offer up to thee their argent crowns,
 Which thou didst late steep in thy silver font,
 And fling to them down from thine azure throne,
 In token of supremacy, and bound
 Them as a princess binds her prostrate slaves,
 To do thee homage in their glittering chains.
 Hail, goddess! Thou, where sea-born Delos rears

His proud brow o'er the waters, comest thence
 To meet our Lesbian vows, — Pure Cynthia, hail!
 Hail thou, Ægean! gemm'd with graceful isles;
 Thy breast hath borne full many a gallant prow.
 And hail, Æolian shores, that sweetly send
 By the soft waves melodious greeting here.
 And hail my native Lesbia! on whose hills
 Aurora loosens to the winds her robes;
 And great Apollo, from his golden bow,
 Shoots the first shaft into the morning air.

'And hail to thee! who makest the heart thy shrine,
 Eternal Love! — for ever be my lyre,
 As my impassion'd accents, tuned to thee!
 And let me sing of thee when sleep the gales,
 As now they slumber in the myrtle groves,
 And Ocean curbs within the caves his strength;
 And read thy language in the stars, and be,
 Immortal Love! for aye thy votary.'

Sappho's subsequent grief and despair are very forcibly
 told in language like the following:

'*Megara.* At first she did abandon her to grief,
 With all that keen intensity which spirits
 So finely temper'd do experience —
 Boundless and desperate, and forming such
 A fearful contrast with their dreams of bliss,
 That we do tremble whilst we gaze on them.
 Then grasp'd she at a faint hope which did gleam,
 Or had its birth in her creative mind,
 Shadowy and fleeting — and she clung to it
 Until its wan rays in her vision grew
 Beautifully distinct. She raised her brow,
 Which she had droop'd upon my neck, and flung
 Her tresses back, through which her tearful eyes
 Had shone like meek orbs half eclipsed by rains,
 And fix'd them upon mine, as if she sought
 There to confirm th' illusions she had raised;
 And said to me, "This is not what it seems —
 'Tis but some wayward mood that sways him.
 I know he will relent when I do sing
 To him the strains he used to love in Lesbos.
 He means not thus, *Megara.*"

'*Atthis.* Alas!
 How briefly will this ray which she hath stolen
 From fair Elysium light her unto Hades!

'*Megara.* Alas! alas how soon!
 We are but late return'd from that strange meeting,
 And now she hies her to yon viny shade
 To rest, — so would she have us think; — but I
 Do know she only wanders there to weep.'

It will easily be perceived that the specimens here given, to say nothing of the remaining portions of the volume, are by no means of equal merit, or void of faults and inaccuracies of style and manner. The use of the auxiliary verb, *do*, in the last extract, is particularly obtrusive and objectionable. — To the two poems already mentioned, several miscellaneous pieces are added:— viz. *The Entrance of the Goths into Rome*; *The last Vigil of Julian*; *The Spartan Mother*; *On Haydon's Picture of the raising of Lazarus*; and some lines on *The Sister of Körner, the German Poet*. Such is the beautiful though mournful character of the last of these compositions, and such are its mingled melody, simplicity, and tenderness of tone, that we would close our extracts with it if we had any more space left.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR SEPTEMBER, 1824.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 14. *The Animal Kingdom*, arranged in Conformity with its Organization, by the Baron Cuvier, &c. &c. With additional Descriptions of all the Species hitherto named; of many not before noticed; and other original Matter; by Edward Griffith, F.L.S., and others. 8vo. pp. 219. 15s. sewed. Whitakers. 1824.

This is the first part of a System of Zoology, designed to embrace the whole of Cuvier's *Règne Animal*, with the requisite amendments and enlargements; and to unite comprehensiveness in the scientific details with the more popular statements relative to the appropriate instincts, manners, and habits of the respective species. The combination of these views with accuracy and brevity, in the execution, presents a task of no easy performance, but would supply an important desideratum in the physical department of British literature. We trust, therefore, that Mr. Griffith and his coadjutors have brought to their proposed undertaking all the authentic materials, all the discriminating knowledge, and all the persevering research, which its magnitude and complication essentially imply. From the present earnest of their labors, it would be precipitate to infer either ultimate failure or all the success which they may fondly anticipate; for, hitherto, they have presented to us only a translation of Baron Cuvier's preliminary disquisition, his general observations on vertebrate animals, and his sketch of the natural history of man; accompanied by occasional explanations, or criticisms, and a supplemental view of the human species, zoologically considered. His last been duly incorporated with the version of the French

text, the subject would have assumed a less disjointed form, and some repetitions might have been spared. The editors have adopted the laudable resolution of suppressing all recitals which may wound the sense of delicacy, or tend to foster scepticism or infidelity.

According to the proposals, this publication will 'appear in parts, quarterly, and will include a complete Survey of the whole Animal Creation, sufficiently extended, it is presumed, to give every information hitherto obtained on the several species, and at the same time so compressed as not to be unreasonable in bulk or expense. Every pains will be taken, and the best talent employed, both in the drawings and engravings. Good figures, when they are to be found either in English or foreign works, will be copied; but the majority of the plates will be from original drawings.'

Among eighteen of these illustrations, which are given with the present part, we do not find the figure of a native of the interior of New Holland, and the profile of an aged Otaheitean chief, to which we are referred in the text. In the latter, we have noticed several slips of the pen or of the press; as, *resparatory*, *nutrative*, *trachæ*; so for *os*; forms neither produce or change themselves; hence is derived the first leading characters; actions of instinct bears so little proportion; from these *break* forth a worm; on these are founded the division; the neck of the thigh-bones *form*; the proportion *indicate*; native ferocity *render*, &c. At page 159., the cheeks of the Mulatto are said to be *less short than the Negroes*. We shall look for more correctness and purity of style as the work proceeds.

EDUCATION.

Art. 15. *Advice to Young Mothers, on the Physical Education of Children.* By a Grandmother. 12mo. pp. 374. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

The great and obvious importance, as well as the difficulty, of the task of rearing children, has induced medical men at different times to address to the public directions on this subject: but, excellent as various works of that nature certainly are, we have always felt in the perusal of them a deficiency of practical nursery-experience, which the mere medical man never can possess. On the other hand, it was to be presumed that any attempt of this description by a female, however experienced in the management of children, would exhibit a corresponding want of correct professional knowledge. The small volume now before us, however, must be admitted to unite the experience of the nursery with enlightened medical views, and is declared by its author to be *really the work of an old woman*. If such be the case, she is a very clever and a very well-informed old lady: but, even then, we cannot help entertaining strong suspicions that she has received material assistance in the execution of her task from some physician, and one of no mean acquirements. We will not, however, deny that the work presents some passages which could not have been written, nor even revised, by a professional man: thus the

author speaks of an accumulation of mucus in the stomach of an infant causing suffocation (p. 57.); and, in another part, human milk is recommended as a remedy for the ophthalmia of infants. (P. 72.)

The volume is prefaced by some excellent general remarks on its plan and object, on the peculiarities of the complaints of children; and on the difficulty of treating them successfully.

'The excessive ignorance,' observes the writer, 'of the generality of mankind respecting every thing which relates to medicine, is productive of many bad consequences; one of which (and not the least) is the power it bestows on a tribe of ignorant pretenders, who infest the earth, to the great detriment of the sick; for few persons know how to distinguish between them and those men who, dedicating their time and talents to the researches of science, are enabled to relieve the infirmities of human nature. To choose a physician well, one should be half a physician one's self: but as this is not the case with many, the best plan which the mother of a family can adopt is, to select a man whose education has been suitable to his profession; whose habits of life are such, as prove that he continues to acquire both practical and theoretical knowledge; who is neither a bigot in old opinions, nor an enthusiast in new; and, (for many reasons,) not the fashionable doctor of the day. A little attention in making the necessary inquiries will suffice to ascertain the requisites here specified; to which should be added (what is usually found in medical men of real merit) those qualities which may serve to render him an agreeable companion: for the family-physician should always be the family-friend.'

Very ample directions are given respecting all that concerns the physical education of children, from birth to adolescence; and on some of those points of their moral management which most immediately affect the corporeal frame. The highly important subject of the *prevention* of diseases is treated with much good sense, and, we do not hesitate to add, with the best professional information. The following remarks on scrophula afford a fair specimen of the author's manner, and of the ability displayed in the discussion of the subject:

'Children disposed to scrophulous complaints require little medicine; but strict attention should be paid to their manner of living; they should have as much air and exercise as they can have without fatigue, and the most strengthening and nourishing food. The greatest attention should be paid to their digestive powers, which are sometimes very weak, and it frequently happens that things which would appear the best adapted to them, do not agree with the peculiar state of their stomachs. Strong broths and jellies are amongst the aliments one would be most inclined to recommend; but they will sometimes disagree and occasion fever. Sago, salep, arrow-root, &c., which are prepared with wine, sugar, and lemon-juice, where they agree with the stomach and please the taste, are excellent food for children inclined to debility. Eggs are generally suitable to children, and coffee

coffee and chocolate may often prove medicinal to those of a relaxed, delicate constitution.* Chocolate in substance will agree with stomachs which cannot bear it mixed with hot water, and a piece of this with bread, and a glass of cold water after it, is by no means a bad breakfast for a weak child. Good bread, well fermented and well baked, is considered, by many eminent physicians, as more proper food for children inclined to scrophulous than unfermented farinaceous substances, such as barley, oat-meal, &c. &c.: but I am convinced that if they take sufficient exercise, this last-mentioned sort of food, in moderation, will not hurt them.—

‘ Among children, who are inclined to scrophulous maladies, some are very intelligent, and others quite the contrary: the former should not be encouraged to learn too soon, and the latter should be taught late and slowly. Amusing exercise should be the great object of both, but care should be taken to avoid fatigue. They should have all those toys which excite children to use their limbs, and in dry weather should be as much as possible in the open air. Swinging is an exercise particularly adapted for them, especially as it may be so contrived, by fixing a seat with a back to it on the rope, that a very weak child may have a great deal of motion without fatigue.

‘ When delicate children cannot have much exercise, or are obliged to live in climates where bad weather often confines them to the house, their bodies should every day be rubbed all over with flannels which have imbibed the fumes of frankincense, benzoin, amber, &c. In summer, their beds should be exposed to the sun, and in winter heated by a warming-pan, in which a little of one of the above-mentioned aromatic substances has been burnt. Scrophulous children should never be allowed to suffer from cold, (indeed it is injurious to all children,) and particular care should be taken to change their clothes according to the season.

‘ With regard to the instruction of children threatened or afflicted with diseases of debility, it is of the greatest consequence that they should be taught by persons who will treat them with gentleness, and neither irritate nor terrify them, but especially the latter. There are no painful moral sensations so injurious to children of this constitution as *fear* and *shame*. Anger irritates the nerves, and promotes the morbid secretion of bile, but does not depress the spirits and check the circulation, like feelings of terror and shame; and for this reason it is more hurtful to children inclined to glandular obstructions to be frightened and mortified than to be enraged. They should be guarded, as much as possible, from every sort of moral pain, but more especially from such as retards the course of the blood: for this reason they should never be left with persons likely to treat them with contempt, or to frighten them with severe threats or practical jokes.’

* I must explain that the chocolate meant here is that which is made with sugar, and without any mixture of fat, flour, &c.; in short, such as is usually to be met with in Italy.

We are acquainted with no work which is so likely to become popular with mothers, as the volume now before us, or which can be placed in their hands with so much safety and prospect of advantage. While it treats with due leniency the innocent prejudices of the nursery, it combines in an admirable manner the results of long practical experience with the enlightened instructions of medical science; and it therefore forms altogether a valuable present for the young mother, as well as a guide of no mean utility to the physician who has just commenced his career of practice.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 16. *The Periodical Press of Great Britain and Ireland; or, an Inquiry into the State of the Public Journals, chiefly as regards* their Moral and Political Influence.* 12mo. pp. 219. Hurst and Co. 1824.

It is related of Cardinal Wolsey that, in the very infancy of printing in England, he had the sagacity to foresee the probable effects of the press in opposing the Catholic religion; and that, in a speech to some assemblage of clergy, he publicly forewarned them that, if they did not destroy the press, the press would destroy them. Indeed, it is the most powerful moral machine in the world, as the author of this little work observes, 'and exercises a greater influence over the manners and opinions of civilized society, than the united eloquence of the bar, the senate, and the pulpit.' The power of the press was evinced in its very cradle: like the infant Hercules, it gripped the viper in its hands till it perished under its grasp: every subsequent exertion of this power has added to its strength; and we may almost say without a figure of speech, now, that the press is omnipotent, at least in England and America, — the two most free countries in the world, and so free *because* of this omnipotence of the press. The continental governments of Europe have kept up a constant warfare with it: they are at war with it now; and the conflict will probably terminate only with the destruction of the one or the other party. It has had to sustain many encounters in this country: but it possesses an invincibility, an elasticity, which makes it rise, like the giant Antæus, invigorated after every fall.

It is unnecessary to eulogize the benefits which free discussion, on every subject, has invariably produced amongst mankind. Wherever it has been tolerated, the intellectual improvement of society has advanced equally with the national prosperity. Man has become a freer, a more industrious, a more rational, and a more happy animal. His comforts have become more abundant and less savage, as his knowledge has extended. In proportion as the curb has been removed from his tongue, and the expansion of his mental faculties encouraged, in the same ratio has he become more useful to himself, and more beneficial to his fellow-

* This sort of bad writing is becoming deplorably common. What is the nominative to the verb *regards*?

creatures. The most free, prosperous, and enlivened, as well as the most enslaved, wretched, and benighted nations of the earth, are living proofs of the fact. Is there a people more enslaved than the people of Russia, — and where is there an instance of so extensive an empire so deeply and darkly veiled in ignorance? Where do we find more wretchedness, and more disaffection; than in the Italian states, — but where is public opinion more shackled? Are not the Spaniards sunk in the most abject misery, in the most profound ignorance, and in the most debasing superstition, — but how long have they been interdicted from the light of literature, from the blessings of free discussion and toleration? In short, go where we will, we find mankind prosperous in proportion as they are enlightened. As the press has flourished, so have the people, — as it has been cramped, so have been their energies; — and where enquiry has been confined to the abstruse sciences, or what more properly belongs to the *few* than to the *many*, national amelioration, like Sterne's bucket in the well, has not only been suspended, but this limitation to mental researches has even thwarted the beneficial operation of such studies upon the community at large.

There is much truth also in the following remarks; and they may possibly have the effect of allaying the apprehensions of those timid persons, who still think that an *ex-officio* information inspires some salutary terrors, and that the "Constitutional Association" is not the most nauseous piece of quackery, or the grossest imposition on the public credulity, that ever was attempted:

The more diversified public opinion is, the less extensive will be its ramifications, and the less danger to the monarchy is to be apprehended from it. Were all the dissenters of Great Britain linked together by one creed, and cemented by one undivided interest, their united hostility to the Established Church would be irresistible; but, happily, each sect steers its own course, and bears a jealousy equally strong towards a neighbouring conventicle as towards the legal church. They retain no fellow-feeling, no brotherly love, beyond the threshold of their respective castes; and there is not a trace of similarity amongst them in any thing but in that one act of secession. It is the same with political as it is with religious partizanship. Were the ministry opposed by the conjoined forces of all their avowed opponents, the intrigues of faction would be more successful, parliamentary attacks would be more frequent and more violent, while electioneering contests would more frequently terminate in favor of whoever happened to be at that moment the idol of the multitude, and however intensely the choice might be repented of. The more, therefore, that public debates are encouraged, and the more diversified are the different theories and opinions that float on the bosom of society, even in the most frantic moments, the less strength will each faction possess, and the easier will it be to soothe the asperities of hostile parties.

To accomplish this, the public press must be untaxed and unshackled, and the fullest scope given to every writer to develope

his views, and to every reader to exercise his judgment as he pleases. We wish the clang of opposite theories to reverberate ; we wish the antipodes of faction to come in contact ; we wish to see the swaggering aristocrat and the republican leveller meet in the same arena ; we wish to see the opinions of Paley and Paine — of Chancellor Eldon and little Waddington — lying upon the same table, in the same smoke-pipe shop. Beat down the fence that divides them, let them but have a meeting, and we fearlessly leave the on-lookers to pass their opinion.'

It is asserted, however, that the press is licentious. Granted : — but, as certain serpents are said to secrete the only antidote to their own poison, so do we firmly believe that the delinquencies of the press are best corrected by the press itself. Ribaldry will excite disgust and be met by contempt. "If we think to regulate printing thereby to regulate manners," said the great champion of an unfettered press, in his *Areopagitica*, "we must regulate all recreations and pastimes, all that is delightful to man. No music must be heard, no song must be set or sung, but what is grave and Doric. There must be licensing dancers, that no gesture, motion, or deportment, be taught our youth, but what by their allowance shall be thought honest. It will ask more than the work of twenty 'associations' to examine all the lutes, the violins, and the gittars ; and who shall silence all the airs and madrigals that whisper softness in chambers ? The windows and the balconies must be thought on, there are shrewd books with dangerous frontispieces set to sale. Who shall prohibit them ?" Then as to political or religious heresies : — "Though all the winds of doctrine were let loose to play upon the earth, so truth be in the field, we do injuriously by prohibiting to misdoubt her strength. Let her and falsehood grapple ; who ever knew truth put to the worse in a free and open encounter ?"

The author of this little work is well acquainted with all the complicated machinery which belongs to a London press ; and we are the more disposed to recommend the perusal of it because he is a Tory, — at least we may presume so from the disrespectful terms in which he characterizes Whig publications, Whig orators, and Whig M.P.s. It is rather a novelty to see a Tory strenuously advocating an unlimited freedom of inquiry and publication, and such a person's arguments come with double effect : but this writer has seen the total uselessness, folly, and mischief of having recourse to any other remedy for the abuses of the press than to the press itself. He gives a character of all the principal newspapers in London, the justness of which we pretend not to appreciate ; and an historical account of the rise and increase of the news-paper-establishments of the kingdom, including Scotland and Ireland, which is very striking. The following is a summary :

'The newspaper-press of London is unrivalled by any similar establishment in the world. In point of literary talent and mechanical execution, it is an honour to the British empire. The press of the United States of America will bear no comparison with

with it; and the Parisian one, so far from equalling that of London, is not, by many degrees, equal to the provincial press of Ireland. In London there are from fifty to sixty different newspapers. The number varies, as many start into existence, and run perhaps the career of but a few weeks: but some of them have been established for upwards of a century, others from forty to fifty years, although the greater proportion have come into being since the period of the French Revolution. Much of the prosperity and greatness of England is to be dated from that era. Commercial enterprize received an impetus from the war, unexampled in the history of any nation. Manufactures, especially cotton-manufactures, only in their infancy at the commencement of the Revolution, reached almost a state of perfection during the continental devastations that followed. Newspapers increased with the national prosperity and independence. Each passing event daily became more interesting, and the desire to obtain early intelligence became the stronger. This is demonstrable from the following table of the number of newspapers published within the United Kingdoms at three distinct periods, the earliest only forty-two years ago:

	1782.	1790.	1821.
' Newspapers published in England	- 50	60	135
Scotland	- 8	27	31
Ireland	- 3	27	56
daily in London	9	14	16
twice a week do.	9	7	8
weekly do.	0	11	32
British Islands	0	0	6
	<u>79</u>	<u>146</u>	<u>284</u>

This prodigious increase, be it observed, has taken place in defiance of those 'enormous imposts and restrictions,' which the author extravagantly says have 'crushed the periodical press to the earth.' (P. 201.) Yet we shall be most happy to see the time when those imposts shall be lightened, and when a news-paper may be bought, as it was in our younger days, for three-pence halfpenny instead of seven-pence;—and the rage for reading them is so great, that perhaps the revenue would suffer little or nothing by the boon.

A curious document is given at the end, 'A List of Stamps issued for Newspapers in 1821, with the Amount of Duty received for each.' The duty paid in that year by *The Courier* was 26,575*l.*; and by *The Times* and *Evening Mail* jointly, 44,746*l.* The total amount of duty is 412,996*l.* 8*s.* 8*d.*

Art. 17. *Cambridge Classical Examinations.* 8vo. 4*s.* Boards.
Printed at Cambridge, and sold in London by Murray, &c.
1824.

Professor Monk is the scholar to whom we are indebted for this little publication: which consists of extracts from Greek, Latin, and English authors, given as subjects for translation, and
of

of questions proposed to the candidates for different classical honors at Cambridge, while he held the Regius Professorship of Greek at that University. He thus explains its object:

‘ The idea of such a publication was suggested by the anxious wish frequently expressed by students, to obtain copies of examinations which had been proposed on previous occasions. By thus allowing them an opportunity of perusing and considering such documents, I hope not only to gratify a reasonable curiosity, but to guide their studies, in the course best calculated to prepare them for a similar ordeal. And independently of any academical objects, a collection of this nature, consisting of choice passages from the best authors of antiquity, can hardly fail to be in itself both interesting and useful to the classical student. Such considerations have induced the syndics of the press to order that this little volume should be printed under the sanction and patronage of our University.

‘ As this collection may fall into the hands of persons unacquainted with the practice of examinations at Cambridge, it is not superfluous to mention, that the performance of the several exercises was enjoined to the candidates, assembled in a room, and allowed only pen, ink, and paper, within the limited period of two or three hours, or more, according to the length or difficulty of the task. As there will be observed a considerable diversity in the nature of the subjects proposed for similar prizes in different years, it is necessary to explain, that other departments of each examination belonged to other examiners. The papers here printed were all set by myself. But, as at one time or other all the different departments have been allotted to me, this collection will exhibit a fair specimen of a Cambridge Classical Examination, as it has been conducted since the year 1810; with the addition, however, of a Latin theme, and Latin verses written upon some proposed subject.

‘ The extracts are printed from the best editions of the respective authors, carefully revised both in regard to the language and the punctuation. But as there occurred, not unfrequently, evident corruptions of the text, which destroyed the construction and the sense, and as it was essentially important that the young men should have, for the purpose of translation, a copy free from such impediments, I did not hesitate in those cases to adopt the best emendations which I found proposed by the critics; and where no probable readings had been suggested by others, I corrected the passages according to my own ability and judgment. This is particularly the case in the pieces extracted from the Greek dramatic writers; and in this part of the work neither care nor diligence have [has] been spared. It is right to add that I have in two or three instances taken greater liberties than I should have ventured to do, had I been publishing an edition of the author; and my apology must be the necessity of the case. And in reviewing the extracts for publication, wherever I have been convinced that the actual words of the author were different from what they are found in the editions, I have not hesitated to print them in an
emended

emended form. I am not without hopes that my corrections will in some instances meet the approbation of judges : but the nature of the publication, being entirely designed for the use of students, ought to exempt it from the severity of criticism.

We congratulate our Alma Mater on the restoration of classical literature to its true dignity and importance, in the scale of academical studies among her groves. It is only within the last two years that classical honors have been objects of competition at Cambridge, unless the University-scholarships and the competition for the medals can be so regarded. The new examinations, termed in the University-slang "Little-goes," will at least do justice to the talents and acquirements of those students, who from various causes are prevented from attaining a considerable proficiency in the mathematics, — heretofore the exclusive criterion of academical merit on the banks of Cam. This revocation of the muses to their native seats, reluctantly, but now (we trust) finally conceded to them, will no doubt have a most auspicious influence on the interests of learning in general; and the examinations themselves bespeak the degree of preparatory study and advancement in this elegant branch of letters, which will be expected from the competitors. Several of the most difficult choral odes of Æschylus, to be translated into literal English, and into Latin verse, — passages of considerable difficulty from Aristophanes, Plato, and Thucydides, — considerable portions of Greek plays from Sophocles and Euripides, — with a long list of miscellaneous questions, correct answers to which must imply very extensive erudition, — are the subjects of the examination. Of these questions, we give the following specimen :

' 8. Mention, in chronological order, the principal events of the wars carried on by Philip of Macedon against the different Grecian states.

' 9. What is Livy's opinion as to the probable success of Alexander the Great, if he had turned his arms against Italy, and what the reasons of his opinion?

' 10. Give some account of the following places at Athens, and the origin of their names : — Κεραμεικός, Λυκαῖον, Ἀκαδημία, (quote instances from Greek and Latin poets to prove that its penultima is always long, except among the later Latin poets,) Περραινόν, ἡ Πονικὴ, Πηγεῖ, μακρὰ τεῖχην. Where, when, and by whom, were the last built?

' 11. What relation had the Attic dialect to the Ionic? And what Ionic words are found in the Attic poets?

' 12. Mention distinctly the principal rules and licences adopted by the tragedians in their iambic, trochaic, and anapaestic verses. Quote instances in illustration of each.

13. Who was the inventor of the satyric drama? What are the characteristics in which it differs from tragedy and comedy? Which of the poets particularly excelled in this species of composition?

' 14. Translate the following lines of the Ἀδωνιδεύουσαι of Theocritus, v. 34.

Γ. Παξι-

- ‘ Γ. Πραξινία, μάλα τοι τὸ καταπυχὲς ἐμπερόναμα
 Τούτο πρέπει λῆγε μοι, πόσῳ κατέβα τοι ἀφ’ ἰσθῶ ;
 ‘ Π. Μὴ μνάσῃς, Γοργοῦ πλὴν ἀργυρίῳ καθαροῦ μῶν
 ‘ Ἡ δύο τοῖς δ’ ἔργοις καὶ τὰν ψυχὰν ποτέθηκα.
 ‘ Γ. Ἀλλὰ κατὰ γνῶμαν ἀπέβα τοι.

Point out the Dorisms, and explain ἀργυρίῳ καθαροῦ μῶν. What is the value of the μῶν? Does the money spoken of appear to have been the money of Syracuse?

‘ 15. What were the principal successes, by which the Romans became masters of Italy?

‘ 16. Mention the most remarkable particulars in the life of Hannibal, with the date of each. What is the character given of him by Roman writers, and to what objections is it liable?

‘ 17. What were the different revolutions and convulsions in the Roman state during the period of Cicero’s life? What part did Cicero take in each? and in what respects is his conduct censurable?

It is evident that young men who are competent to answer these questions, and to perform at a moment’s warning such exercises, must be perfectly well-grounded, and, we might add, deeply read. As far as the experiment has yet gone, we have reason to believe that the most valuable results have already flowed from these examinations: for a spirit of ingenuous and manly emulation has been awakened between the several colleges, and in particular between the students of the different public schools who compose so considerable a part of the University. The distinctions, implied in standing well on the lists of the examinations, are eagerly courted and highly prized; and, although they may win over some proselytes from the severer studies of the mathematics, yet many instances occur, and many more will no doubt be seen hereafter, of the attainment to excellence in each by one and the same student.

Art. 18. *Parables*; by Dr. F. A. Krummacher: translated from the German by F. Shoberl. 12mo. pp. 316. 6s. half-bound. Ackermann. 1824.

The reverend author of these pleasing parables was preceptor to the late Queen of Prussia in her early years. He lived to attend in 1814 the funeral of the excellent personage whom he had formed; and in this work he consecrates to her memory a collection of the lessons which he had composed for her instruction. They consist of parables, allegories, or apologues, imagined and related in the style of the sacred volume; and they bear so considerable a resemblance to the *Paramythia* of Herder, which were noticed at some extent in our twentieth volume, p. 512., that we shall seem to be making farther extracts from them, in laying before our readers a few of Dr. Krummacher’s happy imitations. There are in all 130 fables.

‘ *The Parsee, the Jew, and the Christian.*

‘ A Jew entered a Parsee temple, and there beheld the sacred fire. What! said he to the priest, do ye worship the fire? — Not the

the fire, answered the priest; it is to us an emblem of the sun, and of his genial heat. — Do ye then worship the sun as your god? asked the Jew. Know ye not that this luminary also is but a work of the Almighty Creator? — We know it, replied the priest, but the uncultivated man requires a sensible sign, in order to form a conception of the Most High. And is not the sun an image of the Invisible, Incomprehensible Source of Light, of that Being who blesses and preserves all things?

‘The Israelite thereupon rejoined: Do your people then distinguish the type from the original? They call the sun their god, and descending even from this to a baser object, they kneel before an earthly flame. Ye amuse the outward, but blind the inward eye, and while ye hold forth to them the earthly, ye withdraw from them the heavenly light. — Thou shalt not make unto thee any image or any likeness.

‘How then do ye designate the Supreme Being? asked the Parsee.

‘We call him Jehovah Adonai, that is, the Lord who is, who was, and who will be, answered the Jew.

‘Your appellation is grand and sublime, said the Parsee, but it is awful too.

‘A Christian then drew nigh and said: We call him Father.

‘The Pagan and the Jew looked at each other and said: Here is at once an image and a reality! — it is a word of the heart, said they.

‘Thereupon, they raised their eyes to heaven and said with reverence and love: Our Father!

‘And then they took each other by the hand, and all three called one another brothers.’

‘*The Spirit of Christianity.*

‘In the neighbourhood of Antioch, in Syria, dwelt two families, who had long been at bitter enmity, which was transferred from the parents to the children. Attalus and Meno, the heads of these families, seized every occasion to annoy one another, and their animosity increased every day.

‘Now Meno had a slave, who was a disciple of the Lord, and walked worthily of the Gospel, and was faithful in all things, so that Meno esteemed him highly, and placed him over his whole household. The name of this slave was Silas. And in all that Silas did, God was with him, and blessed the house of his master for his sake. Meno, therefore, frequently conversed with his steward, and Silas converted him, so that he believed and was baptized in the name of the Lord.

‘From this time forward Meno became a totally different man from what he had been before; and he ceased to speak ill of Attalus, his enemy, though Attalus hated and persecuted him more than ever, and daily did him fresh injury.

‘By such forbearance Attalus was still more exasperated, and he hired wicked men to lay waste Meno’s garden in the night, and they destroyed his finest trees, on which Meno set a particular value.

‘Then

' Then Meno's friends went to him and said, If thou dost not revenge this injury, he will soon do thee a still greater. But Meno answered them and said, The mischief was done at night: he will deny it. To me it serves for an exercise in patience. I was myself formerly actuated by the same spirit.

' Soon afterwards, Meno's friends brought two of the villains whom Attalus had suborned to lay waste the garden, and said, These men have confessed the fact, therefore now thou mayst have him punished. But Meno answered, I have forgiven him, and will not admit enmity into my heart, though I am certainly grieved for the loss of the trees. And Meno's friends were angry with him for his forbearance.

' Some time afterwards a furious fire broke out in the house of Attalus. Meno hastened with all his people to the spot, and saved two of his enemy's children from the flames. He thereupon went up to Attalus and offered him his hand, saying, Let there be no longer enmity between thee and me, and between thy house and mine! And Meno offered to assist him in building a new house instead of that which had been consumed.

' But Attalus turned from him and was wroth in spirit, and said, This fire was the work of Meno, — and many believed his words. And this circumstance troubled the heart of Meno beyond measure, and his friends said, Take no farther account of that wicked man, but deliver him over to Satan!

' But Meno said, He is still a man, and bears in his bosom a wounded heart. I will not curse him.

' In process of time Attalus lost all that he possessed, and he became exceedingly poor, and suffered want with his wife and children, and Attalus himself fell sick with distress and grief.

' Then Meno took courage and went again to him and said, Ah, Attalus! let not discord prevail any longer between thee and me, but let us shake hands before we die! Behold, what is mine shall be thine. Let us then in future live together as brothers!

' When Attalus heard these words, he looked at Meno with hollow eyes, and his face was distorted, and he turned it away. But his wife and children wept, and Meno wept also.

' Then did his friends deride Meno, and say, Now surely hath thy heart exhausted its kindness on the unworthy wretch; what more canst thou do for him? Meno answered and said, All I can now do is to pray for him. And Meno secretly supported Attalus and his family, so that they suffered no want.

' After those days Attalus became worse, and at length gave up the ghost. When Meno heard this, he wept for him and attended him to the grave, and became the protector of the widow and orphans.

' The people then said, How is it possible for a man to act thus? But they knew not the spirit that dwelt in Meno.'

The Miracle.

' One day in spring, Solomon, then a youth, sat under the palm-trees, in the garden of the king, his father, with his eyes fixed on the
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the ground, and absorbed in thought. Nathan, his preceptor, went up to him, and said, Why sittest thou thus, musing under the palm-trees?

‘The youth raised his head, and answered, Nathan, I am exceedingly desirous to behold a miracle.

‘A wish, said the prophet, with a smile, which I entertained myself in my juvenile years.

‘And was it granted? hastily asked the Prince.

‘A man of God, answered Nathan, came to me, bringing in his hand a pomegranate seed. Observe, said he, what this seed will turn to! He thereupon made with his finger a hole in the earth, and put the seed into the hole, and covered it. Scarcely had he drawn back his hand, when the earth parted, and I saw two small leaves shoot forth; but no sooner did I perceive them than the leaves separated, and from between them arose a round stem, covered with bark, and the stem became every moment higher and thicker.

‘The man of God thereupon said to me, Take notice! And while I observed, seven shoots issued from the stem, like the seven branches on the candlestick of the altar.

‘I was astonished, but the man of God motioned to me, and commanded me to be silent, and to attend. Behold, said he, new creations will soon make their appearance.

‘He thereupon brought water in the hollow of his hand from the stream which flowed past; and lo! all the branches were covered with green leaves, so that a cooling shade was thrown around us, together with a delicious odour. Whence, exclaimed I, is this perfume amid the refreshing shade?

‘Seest thou not, said the man of God, the scarlet blossom, as, shooting forth from among the green leaves, it hangs down in clusters?

‘I was about to answer, when a gentle breeze agitated the leaves, and strewed the blossoms around us, as the autumnal blast scatters the withered foliage. No sooner had the blossoms fallen than the red pomegranates appeared suspended among the leaves, like the almonds on the staves of Aaron. The man of God then left me in profound amazement.

‘Nathan ceased speaking. What is the name of the godlike man? asked Solomon hastily. Doth he yet live? Where doth he dwell?

‘Son of David, replied Nathan, I have related to thee a vision.

‘When Solomon heard these words, he was troubled in his heart, and said, How canst thou deceive me thus?

‘I have not deceived thee, son of Jesse, rejoined Nathan. Behold, in thy father’s garden thou mayst see all that I have related to thee. Doth not the same thing take place with every pomegranate, and with the other trees?

‘Yes, said Solomon, but imperceptibly, and in a long time.

‘Then Nathan answered. Is it therefore the less a divine work, because it takes place silently and insensibly? Study nature and her

her operations; then wilt thou easily believe those of a higher power, and not long for miracles wrought by a human hand.

These specimens will suffice to convince our readers that Dr. K.'s allegoric stories unite grace of form with humanity of purpose; and that they are well adapted as a book of education for the use of young persons who are to be trained in habits of piety, tenderness, tolerance, and beneficence. Indeed, the genuine spirit of Christianity, untinged by the peculiar doctrines of any sect, pervades the whole collection, and fits it for the perusal and edification of persons of every denomination. Imagination seldom twines her flowers round narrations so useful in their tendency. The clad Graces here adorn the temple of Piety; while Beauty beckons from various heavens the purest forms of their several mythologies; employs them to reveal to man the delights of virtue, and directs them to irradiate his view with the roseate dawn of hope.

Art. 19. *A Summary of the Principles and History of Popery, in Five Lectures on the Pretensions and Abuses of the Church of Rome.* By John Birt. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Westley and Co. 1823.

These lectures are written in a popular manner, and with great zeal. The author not only declaims against the exorbitances of the priestly power and the cruelties of the Inquisition, as infringements on the rights of men and crimes against humanity, but inveighs at large against 'cowled monks and mitred prelates' as usurpers of 'the prophetic, sacerdotal, and regal offices of Jesus Christ;' and much is said against 'will-worship' and 'the righteousnesses of men, which are as filthy rags.' As far as the writer's arguments are on the defensive in favor of the rights of conscience, and of freedom of opinion in religious matters, he has our hearty concurrence: but we cannot approve the unmeasured language in which he denies the creed and the ceremonies of the Roman Catholics. The right of toleration may be asserted without the tone of intolerance, and the soundness of private judgment maintained without the spirit of persecution. The superstitions of the Catholics, also, may be better exposed by other means than by applying obscure passages in the Apocalypse or vilifying the Pope as antichrist; and the abuses of the Roman church may be fully developed, without denying to it the name of a Christian church. Numerous passages evince that the author's ardor prevails over his charity.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are obliged to postpone our notice of several letters (*W. E. T. P., &c.*) which we have lately received.

. The APPENDIX to vol. civ. of the Review is published with this Number, and contains FOREIGN LITERATURE, &c. usual.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For OCTOBER, 1824.

ART. I. *Imaginary Conversations of Literary Men and Statesmen.* By Walter Savage Landor, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. Boards. Taylor and Hessey. 1824.

IT may at first appear surprizing that, as so large a proportion of the writings of the antients, particularly on philosophical subjects, was composed in the dialogue-form; the writings of the moderns have seldom been moulded in this shape: but the fact may perhaps be referred partly to the circumstances of the times, and partly to the difficulties in the structure of the dialogue itself. Among the antients, conversation was the great instrument of instruction: in their porticos, in their gardens, or under the shade of their groves, the various sects of their philosophers communicated or elicited knowledge by free discussion; and it is, therefore, probable that the written dialogues of antiquity are in many instances faithful reports of conversations which actually took place. In modern times, however, the communication of science, even in its most popular form, has assumed something more dogmatical: the eloquence of the Chair, as well as that of the Pulpit, has inevitably become rather dictatorial than conversational; and it is only occasionally—indeed very rarely—that professors find themselves encircled by a band of disputants instead of hearers, interrogated, and put to proof, as Dr. Spurzheim was treated in Edinburgh, where he expected to detail and demonstrate.

In the next place, the nature of dialogue-writing is such as to call for considerable skill, and of various kinds. To be complete, it must include some description of scenery; while it must evince great dramatic talent in bringing forwards the characters, and at once giving propriety and vividness to the representation of them. It requires also much competence in the graces and felicities of language; so as to preserve a diction which, in its general tenor, may be select without any affectation of elegance, and familiar without the slightest tinge of coarseness. Lastly, the touches of description, or of passion, which must be interspersed to impart the

air of reality to the whole, cannot be effected by any ordinary hand.

In reality, then, we need not wonder that in modern times few persons comparatively have attempted this mode of composition, and that still fewer have succeeded. Perhaps, with the exception of Shaftesbury, Addison, Berkely, and Hurd, no British dialogue-writers are worthy of the name; and, even of these writers, only the last two have used the dialogue for the purpose for which it is most peculiarly adapted, that of contrasting the opposite views of the same question, and placing in the fullest and fairest light the contrary arguments that may be urged respecting it.

This form of writing has now been attempted by Mr. Landor, an English gentleman at present residing in Italy, whom we introduced to our readers nearly thirty years ago.* His dialogues are of a very miscellaneous nature, comprehending discussions on several of the most important topics in religion, politics, morals, grammar, and criticism, supposed to pass between eminent persons in all situations. They are thus enumerated:

‘ Vol. I.:—1. Richard I. and the Abbot of Boxley; 2. The Lord Brooke and Sir Philip Sidney; 3. King Henry IV. and Sir Arnold Savage; 4. Southey and Porson; 5. Oliver Cromwel and Walter Noble; 6. Æschines and Phocion; 7. Queen Elizabeth and Cecil; 8. King James I. and Isaac Casaubon; 9. Marchese Pallavicini and Walter Landor; 10. General Kleber and some French Officers; 11. Bonaparte and the President of the Senate; 12. Bishop Burnet and Humphrey Hardcastle; 13. Peter Leopold and the President Du Paty; 14. Demosthenes and Eubulides; 15. The Abbé Delille and Walter Landor; 16. The Emperor Alexander and Capo D'Istria; 17. Kosciusko and Poniatowski; 18. Middleton and Magliabechi.’

‘ Vol. II.:—1. Milton and Andrew Marvel; 2. Washington and Franklin; 3. Roger Ascham and the Lady Jane Grey; 4. Lord Bacon and Richard Hooker; 5. General Lascy and the Curate Merino; 6. Pericles and Sophocles; 7. Louis XIV. and Father La Chaise; 8. Cavaliere Puntomichino and Mr. Denis Eusebius Talcranagh; 9. Samuel Johnson and Horne Tooke; 10. Andrew Hoffer, Count Metternich, and the Emperor Francis; 11. David Hume and John Home; 12. Prince Maurocordato and General Colocotroni; 13. Alfieri and Salomon the Florentine Jew; 14. Lopez Baños and Romero Alpuente; 15. Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn; 16. Lord Chesterfield and Lord Chatham; 17. Aristoteles and Callisthenes; 18. Marcus Tullius Cicero and his brother Quintus.’

* See Review, vol. xxi. N. S. p. 253.

The dialogues of a moral cast are written with such real feeling, that we regret to find them not more frequently interspersed. We would instance those between Lord Brooke and Sir Philip Sydney, Roger Ascham and Lady Jane Grey, as containing passages of beauty and pathos not surpassed by many compositions in our language. It may be requisite to justify ourselves with our readers for using such strong terms in commendation of these two dialogues, and this we can do only by extracting them at full length; adding a declaration that we have perused and re-perused them with delight, since to us it appears that the characters, the situation, and the sentiments, are all admirably adapted, while they bear throughout the simplicity of nature and the genuine language of the heart.

' *Brooke*. I come again unto the woods and unto the wilds of Penshurst, whither my heart and the friend of my heart have long invited me.

' *Sidney*. Welcome, welcome! And now, Greville, seat yourself under this oak; since, if you had hungered or thirsted from your journey, you would have renewed the alacrity of your old servants in the hall.

' *Brooke*. In truth I did so; for no otherwise the good household would have it. The birds met me first, affrightened by the tossing up of caps, and I knew by these harbingers who were coming. When my palfrey eyed them askance for their clamorousness, and shrank somewhat back, they quarreled with him almost before they saluted me, and asked him many pert questions. What a pleasant spot, Sidney, have you chosen here for meditation! a solitude is the audience-chamber of God. — Few days, very few in our year, are like this: there is a fresh pleasure in every fresh posture of the limbs, in every turn the eye takes.

' Youth, credulous of happiness, throw down,
Upon this turf thy wallet, stored and swoln
With morrow-morns, bird-eggs, and bladders burst,
That tires thee with its wagging to and fro:
Thou too wouldst breathe more freely for it, Age,
Who lackest heart to laugh at life's deceit.

' It sometimes requires a stout push, and sometimes a sudden resistance, in the wisest men, not to become for a moment the most foolish. What have I done! I have fairly challenged you, so much my master.

' *Sidney*. You have warmed me: I must cool a little and watch my opportunity. So now, Greville, return you to your invitations, and I will clear the ground for the company: Youth, Age, and whatever comes between, with all their kindred and dependencies. Verily we need few taunts or expostulations; for in the country we have few vices, and consequently few repinings. I take especial care that my young labourers and farmers shall never be
idle,

idle, and supply them with bows and arrows, with bowls and nine-pins, for their Sunday-evening, lest they should wench, drink, and quarrel. In church they are taught to love God; after church they are practised to love their neighbour; for business on work-days keeps them apart and scattered, and on market-days they are prone to a rivalry bordering on malice, as competitors for custom. Goodness does not more certainly make men happy, than happiness makes them good. We must distinguish between felicity and prosperity: for prosperity leads often to ambition, and ambition to disappointment: the course is then over; the wheel turns round but once; while the re-action of goodness and happiness is perpetual.

‘*Brooke*. You reason justly, and you act rightly. Piety, warm, soft, and passive, as the æther round the throne of Grace, is made callous and inactive by kneeling too much: her vitality faints under rigorous and wearisome observances. A forced match between a man and his religion sours his temper, and leaves a barren bed.

‘*Sidney*. Desire of lucre, the worst and most general country vice, arises here from the necessity of looking to small gains. It is the tartar that encrusts economy.

— ‘*Avarice*

Grudges the gamesome river-fish its food,
And shuts his heart against his own life's blood.

‘*Brooke*. O that any thing so monstrous should exist in this profusion and prodigality of blessings! The herbs are crisp and elastic with health; they are warm under my hand, as if their veins were filled with such a fluid as ours. What a hum of satisfaction in God's creatures! How is it, *Sidney*, the smallest do seem the happiest?

‘*Sidney*. Compensation for their weaknesses and their fears — compensation for the shortness of their existence. Their spirits mount upon the sunbeam above the eagle: they have more enjoyment in their one summer than the elephant in his century.

‘*Brooke*. Are not also the little and lowly in our species the most happy?

‘*Sidney*. I would not willingly try nor overcuriously examine it. We, *Greville*, are happy in these parks and forests: we were happy in my close winter-walk of box and laurustinus and meze-reon. In our earlier days did we not emboss our bosoms with the crocusses, and shake them almost unto shedding with our transports! Ah, my friend, there is a greater difference, both in the stages of life and in the seasons of the year, than in the conditions of men: yet the healthy pass through the seasons, from the clement to the inclement, not only unreluctantly, but rejoicingly, knowing that the worst will soon finish and the best begin anew; and we are all desirous of pushing forward into every stage of life, excepting that alone which ought reasonably to allure us most, as opening to us the *Via Sacra*, along which we move in triumph to our eternal country. We may in some measure frame
our

our minds for the reception of happiness, for more or for less; but we should well consider to what port we are steering in search of it, and that even in the richest we shall find but a circumscribed and very exhaustible quantity. There is a sickliness in the firmest of us, which induces us to change our side, though exposing ever so softly; yet, wittingly or unwittingly, we turn gain soon into our old position. God hath granted unto both of us hearts easily contented; hearts fitted for every station, because fitted for every duty. What appears the dullest may contribute most to our genius: what is most gloomy may soften the seeds and relax the fibres of gaiety. Sometimes we are insensible to its kindlier influence, sometimes not. We enjoy the solemnity of the spreading oak above us: perhaps we owe to it in part the mood of our minds at this instant: perhaps an innominate thing supplies me, while I am speaking, with all I possess of animation. Do you imagine that any contest of shepherds can afford them the same pleasure as I receive from the description of it; or that even in their loves, however innocent and faithful, they are so free from anxiety as I am while I celebrate them? The exertion of intellectual power, of fancy and imagination, keeps from us greatly more than their wretchedness, and affords us greatly more than their enjoyment. We are motes in the midst of generations: we have our sunbeams to circuit and climb. Look at the summits of all the trees around us, how they move, and the loftiest the most so: nothing is at rest within the compass of our view, except the grey moss on the park-pales. Let it eat away the dead oak, but let it not be compared with the living one.

‘Poets are nearly all prone to melancholy; yet the most plaintive ditty has imparted a fuller joy, and of longer duration, to its composer, than the conquest of Persia to the Macedonian. A bottle of wine bringeth as much pleasure as the acquisition of a kingdom, and not unlike it in kind: the senses in both cases are confused and perverted.

‘*Brooke.* Merciful heaven! and for the fruition of an hour's drunkenness, from which they must awaken with heaviness, pain, and terror, men consume a whole crop of their kind at one harvest-home. Shame upon those light ones who carol at the feast of blood! and worse upon those graver ones who nail upon their escutcheon the name of great. God sometimes sends a famine, sometimes a pestilence, and sometimes a hero, for the chastisement of mankind; none of them surely for their admiration. Only some cause like unto that which is now scattering the mental fog of the Netherlands, and is preparing them for the fruits of freedom, can justify us in drawing the sword abroad.

‘*Sidney.* And only the accomplishment of our purpose can authorise us again to sheathe it: for, the aggrandisement of our neighbours is nought of detriment to us; on the contrary, if we are honest and industrious, his wealth is ours. We have nothing to dread while our laws are equitable and our impositions light: but children fly from mothers that strip and scourge them. We are

are come to an age when we ought to read and speak loudly what our discretion tells us is fit: we are not to be set in a corner for mockery and derision, with our hands hanging down motionless and our pockets turned inside-out. Let us congratulate our country on her freedom from debt, and on the economy and disinterestedness of her administrators; men altogether of eminent worth, afraid of nothing but of deviating from the broad and beaten path of illustrious ancestors, and propagating her glory in far-distant countries, not by the loquacity of mountebanks or the audacity of buffoons, nor by covering a tarnished sword-knot with a trim shoulder-knot, but by the mission of right learned, grave, and eloquent ambassadors. Triumphant and disdainfully may you point to others,

- ‘ While the young blossom starts to light,
And heaven looks down serenely bright
On Nature’s graceful form;
While hills and vales and woods are gay,
And village-voices all breathe May,
Who dreads the future storm?
- ‘ When princes smile and senates bend,
What mortal e’er foresaw his end
Or fear’d the frown of God?
Yet has the tempest swept them off,
And the oppress, with bitter scoff,
Their silent marble trod.
- ‘ To swell their pride, to quench their ire,
Did venerable Laws expire
And sterner forms arise;
Faith in their presence veiled her head,
Patience and Charity were dead,
And Hope — beyond the skies.

But away, away with politics: let not this city-stench infect our fresh country-air.

‘ *Brooke*. To happiness then, and unhappiness, since we can discourse upon it without emotion. Our unhappiness appears to be more often sought by us, and pursued more stedily than our happiness. What courtier on the one side, what man of genius on the other, has not complained of unworthiness preferred to worth? Who prefers it? his friend? no; his self? no surely. Why then grieve at folly or injustice in those who have no concern in him, and in whom he has no concern? We are indignant at the sufferings of those who bear bravely and undeservedly; but a single cry from them breaks the charm that bound them to us.

‘ *Sidney*. The English character stands high above complaining. I have heard the French soldier scream at receiving a wound; I never heard ours: shall the uneducated be worthy of setting an example to the lettered? If we see, as we have seen, young persons of some promise, but in comparison to us as the colt is to the courser, raised to trust and eminence by any powerful

advocate, is it not enough to feel ourselves the stronger men, without exposing our limbs to the passenger, and begging him in proof to handle our muscles? Only one subject of sorrow, none of complaint, in respect to court, is just and reasonable; namely, to be rejected or overlooked when our exertions or experience might benefit our country. Forbidden to unite our glory with hers, let us cherish it at home the more fondly for its disappointment, and give her reason to say afterwards, she could have wished the union.' —

Old Ascham's conference with Lady Jane is brief.

' *Ascham*. Thou art going, my dear young lady, into a most awful state; thou art passing into matrimony and great wealth. God hath willed it so: submit in thankfulness.

' Thy affections are rightly placed and well distributed. Love is a secondary passion in those who love most, a primary in those who love least. He who is inspired by it in a great degree, is inspired by honour in a greater: it never reaches its plenitude of growth and perfection, but in the most exalted minds. — Alas! alas!

' *Jane*. What aileth my virtuous Ascham? what is amiss? why do I tremble?

' *Ascham*. I see perils on perils which thou dost not see, although thou art wiser than thy poor old master. And it is not because love hath blinded thee, for that surpasseth his supposed omnipotence, but it is because thy tender heart having always leaned affectionately upon good, hath felt and known nothing of evil.

' I once persuaded thee to reflect much; let me now persuade thee to avoid the habitude of reflection, to lay aside books, and to gaze carefully and stedfastly on what is under and before thee.

' *Jane*. I have well bethought me of all my duties: O how extensive they are! what a goodly and fair inheritance! But tell me, wouldst thou command me never more to read Cicero and Epictetus and Polybius? the others I do resign unto thee: they are good for the arbour and for the gravel-walk: but leave unto me, I beseech thee, my friend and father, leave unto me, for my fireside and for my pillow, truth, eloquence, courage, constancy.

' *Ascham*. Read them on thy marriagebed, on thy childbed, on thy deathbed! Thou spotless undrooping lily, they have fenced thee right well! These are the men for men: these are to fashion the bright and blessed creatures, O Jane, whom God one day shall smile upon in thy chaste bosom. — Mind thou thy husband.

' *Jane*. I sincerely love the youth who hath espoused me; I love him with the fondest, the most solicitous affection. I pray to the Almighty for his goodness and happiness, and do forget at times, unworthy supplicant! the prayers I should have offered for myself. O never fear that I will disparage my kind religious teacher, by disobedience to my husband in the most trying duties.

' *Ascham*. Gentle is he, gentle and virtuous: but time will harden him: time must harden even thee, sweet Jane! Do thou, complacently and indirectly, lead him from ambition.

' *Jane*. He is contented with me and with home.

' *Ascham*. Ah Jane, Jane! men of high estate grow tired of contentedness.

' *Jane*. He told me he never liked books unless I read them to him. I will read them to him every evening: I will open new worlds to him, richer than those discovered by the Spaniard; I will conduct him to treasures — O what treasures! — on which he may sleep in innocence and peace.

' *Ascham*. Rather do thou walk with him, ride with him, play with him, be his faery, his page, his every thing that love and poetry have invented; but watch him well, sport with his fancies; turn them about like the ringlets round his cheeks; and if ever he meditate on power, go, toss up thy baby to his brow, and bring back his thoughts into his heart by the music of thy discourse.

' Teach him to live unto God and unto thee: and he will discover that women, like the plants in woods, derive their softness and tenderness from the shade.'

The dialogue between Lord Bacon and Richard Hooker is extremely well sustained, and full of point: while the conversation between Oliver Cromwell and Walter Noble is highly characteristic of the speakers.

As to the political conversations, the views developed in the most prominent manner are decidedly republican; and there is certainly no want of vigor either in the author's sentiments or in his expressions. In the dialogue between King James and Casaubon, the question is discussed how far the Catholics should be incapacitated from holding office on account of their belief in the Pope's temporal jurisdiction; and the writer's decision, both here and in several notes interspersed through the volumes, seems to be in favor of their exclusion. Yet it is very difficult to reconcile such a conclusion with the general doctrines of Mr. Landor, which would give to merit of every kind its full scope; and which impute to sovereignty, as its most mischievous attribute, its power of creating *arbitrary* distinctions, instead of those distinctions between mind and mind which God and nature have ordained.

One of the most interesting of this class of dialogues passes between Washington and Franklin; in which the latter suggests expedients for improving the condition of the Irish people, and much good sense is displayed in every part. We extract the passage relating to the condition of Ireland, because the subject is of deep interest, and all that is suggested concerning it, in every quarter, by reflecting men, deserves serious consideration.

' *Franklin*.

Franklin. There is only one direct way to bring them into order, and that appears so rough, that it never will be trodden. The chief misery arises from the rapacity of the gentry as they are called, and the nobility, who, to avoid the trouble of collecting their rents from many poor tenants, and the greater of hearing their complaints, have leased their properties to what are called *middle-men*. These harass their inferiors in the exact ratio of their industry, and drive them into desperation. Hence slovenliness and drunkenness; for the appearance of ease and comfort is an allurement to avarice. To pacify and reclaim the people, all leases to middle-men must be annulled: every cultivator must have a lease for life, and (at the option of his successor) valid for as many years afterwards as will amount in the whole to twenty-one. The extent of ground should be proportionate to his family and his means. To underlet land should be punished by law as *regrating*. Authority would here be strongly exercised, not tyrannically, which never can be asserted of plans sanctioned by the representatives of a people, for the great and perpetual benefit of the many, to the small and transient inconvenience of the few. Auxiliary to this reform should be one in church-livings. They should all embrace nearly the same number of communicants. Suppose three thousand souls under each cure: a fourth part would consist of the infirm and of children not yet prepared for the reception of doctrine. The service, as formerly, should be shorter, and performed thrice each Sunday; so that all might in turn be present, and that great concourse would be avoided, which frequently is the prelude to licentiousness and brutality. Abolishing tithes, selling the property of the crown, the church, and corporations, I would establish a fund sufficient to allow each clergyman, in addition to his house, one hundred and forty pounds annually. The Catholic priest should have the same number of communicants, and should receive a gratuity of fifty pounds annually, and should also possess his parsonage-house: offerings and gifts, as at present, would accrue to him from the piety and gratitude of his parishioners. The church, as established by government, would be maintained in its supremacy, and the papal priest would be remunerated not for his profession, but for services done towards the state by his attention to the morals of his communicants. If the English pay forty pounds for taking up a felon, would they not willingly pay fifty for reclaiming a dozen? I would grant eight hundred pounds yearly to each Protestant bishop, obliging him to constant residence in his diocese; four of these are sufficient: I would grant two thousand to one arch-bishop. The Catholics should have the same number, and their stipends should be the same; for although the priests are ignorant and vulgar men in all Catholic countries, it is highly requisite for the maintenance of order, that the bishops and arch-bishop here should possess whatever gives authority. Knowledge in some measure gives it, but splendour in a much greater. Elagabalus would attract more notice and lead after him more followers

followers than Lycurgus, and not merely from the lower orders but also from the higher.

'*Washington*. True enough: and indeed some of the wise become as the unwise in the enchanted chambers of Power, whose lamps make every face of the same colour. Gorgeousness melts all mankind into one inert mass, carrying off and confounding and consuming all beneath it, like a torrent of lava, bright amidst the darkness, and dark again amidst the light.

'The reductions you propose would bring about another: they would remove the necessity of a standing army in that unfortunate country, and further would enable the government to establish three companies for fisheries, the herring, the cod, and the whale. The population is already too great, and is increasing, which of itself is the worst of curses, unless when high civilization regulates it, and the superflux must be diverted by colonization, or occupied on the seas by commerce. Manufactures all tend to deteriorate the species, but begin by humanizing it. Happy those countries which have occasion for no more of them than may supply the home-consumption! National debts are evils, not so much because they take away from useful and honest gains, as because they create superfluous and dishonest ones, and because, when carried as far as England would carry hers, they occasion half the children of the land to be cooped up in buildings which open into the brothel and the hospital.

'In assenting to you, I interrupted your propositions; pray go on.

'*Franklin*. I would permit no Englishman to hold in Ireland a place of trust or profit, whether in church or state. I would confer titles and offices on those Irish gentlemen who resided in the country on their properties: they would in time become habituated to a regular and decorous mode of life. The landlord and clergyman would in the beginning lose something of current coin; but if you consider that their lives, houses, and effects would become safe, that provisions would be plentiful in proportion to the sacrifices they made, and that in no year would their rents and incomes fail, as they now do at least twenty in each century, you would find that their situation, like the situation of their inferiors, would be much improved.'

Several of these political dialogues are constructed with masterly address and artifice; and they have an *undersong* of sense, which is intended to be vocal only to the initiated, while the plain reader may be satisfied with antient names, and believe that he is listening only to antient personages and hearing of past events. If some mischievous inquirer, however, when perusing what Demosthenes says about *Ancestatus*, (vol. i. p. 245.) is reminded of any particulars in the history of a living Premier, must he thank his own fancy for the coincidence? If, also, when mention is made (vol. ii. p. 105.) of many particulars in the life of Chlorus, the imagination

ation of any one be carried back to the course of a deceased minister, again must the reader thank himself? It would at any rate be an absurdity to suppose that, when Aristoteles tells Callisthenes (vol. ii. p. 334.) of the events which took place between a negotiator and Metanyctius, all this can have any connection with the transactions of modern times. It would be sad punning to decypher Metanyctius into Metternich. — Again, the finely conceived dialogue between Henry the Eighth and Anne Boleyn, and the notes subjoined to it, cannot possibly have reference to any thing that has passed in England since the sixteenth century.

We quit this dangerous ground, these “*ignes suppositos cineri doloso*,” to observe that even these political dialogues abound in beautiful passages of a moral import; and we gladly turn from exposures of the meanness, the impudence, or the atrocities of public characters, to dwell on such pleasing pictures as the following. The first is extracted from a dialogue between Andrew Hoffer and Count Metternich, and the second from a conversation between Marcus Tullius Cicero and his brother Quintus.

‘ *Hoffer*. If I have devoted my little property, which is always dearer to the possessor than a great one, as every shrub and hillock is familiar to him, and the scene of some joviality, some tenderness, or some kindness; if I have hazarded and exposed my life in all places and seasons, for him whom we both are serving, grant me only a cell or a dungeon in this city. I have a country to defend, I have a family to educate, I have duties to teach and to perform; and your Excellency knows that the French police has traced me into the Austrian states, and has demanded that I should be delivered up. Never shall this happen. I could not preserve the dominions of my master, but I will preserve his honour. Little did I ever dream of prisons: to us Tyrolese they are horrible as hell, and like hell the abodes of crime only; but he whom I have sworn to obey must do nothing unworthy of his name and station. Rather would I waste away my strength in this dreary asylum, rather would I live among the unholy and unjust, rather would I, if such be God's ordinance, lose the blossoming of my brave lads at home, which is worth a thousand times more, not only than all the future, but than all the past of life. There are those about them who will tell them of me, and there are places to take them into, on the cliffs and in the vallies, in many a copse and craggy lane, where my name, summer or winter, will sound in their ears right well.

‘ *Metternich*. Mr. Hoffer, I cannot enter into these discussions. It appears by your own acknowledgement that there will be little loss on either side. Your children will be taken care of, you say, whatever may happen, and a trifle at most can be the damage to your affairs. What then do you miss?

‘ *Hoffer*.

‘ *Hoffer*. The sight of my native hills, my homestead, my gardenplot of sweet herbs, the young apple-trees in my croft, the friends of my youth, the companions of my dangers, and the associates of many a freak and frolic, requiring no less enterprise. I lose above all — but, alas ! what are the children of the great to them ! You stared at me, Sir Count, when I spoke to you of mine. One would imagine that *family* meant coaches, horses, grooms, liveries, and gravy-spoons : one would imagine there were some indecency in the word *child*. Believe me, Sir, they are different things with us from what they are with you. If you happen to cherish them, it is that they may carry a lily, a lion, a bear, a serpent, a bird, when you have done with it. I love in them, yes, beyond my own soul, God forgive me ! the very worst things about them ; their unparriable questions, triumphant screams, and boisterous embraces. It is true, I never talked of them before so ; but they are now beyond hale or whistle far enough.

‘ *Metternich*. I shall be happy to expedite the business of your petition, from which it appears to me, my friend, you have somewhat deviated, forgetting the exact place and circumstances where you are.’—

The subject of our children is also introduced by the two Ciceros.

‘ *Quinctus*. Proceed, my brother. In all temptations of mind and feeling, my spirits are equalized by your discourse ; and that which you said with rather too much brevity of our children, soothes me greatly.

‘ *Marcus*. I am persuaded of the truth in what I have spoken. And yet — ah, Quinctus ! there is a tear that Philosophy cannot dry, and a pang that will rise as we approach the gods.

‘ They, who have given us our affections, permitt us surely the uses and the signs of them. Immoderate grief, like every thing else immoderate, is useless and pernicious ; but if we did not tolerate, and endure it, if we did not prepare for it, meet it, commune with it, if we did not even cherish it in its season, much of what is best in our faculties, much of our tenderness, much of our generosity, much of our patriotism, much also of our genius would be stifled and extinguished.

‘ When I hear any one call upon another to be manly and to restrain his tears, if they flow from the social and the kind affections, I doubt the humanity and distrust the wisdom of the counseler. If he were humane, he would be more inclined to pity and to sympathize than to lecture and to reprove ; and if he were wise, he would consider that tears are given us by nature as a remedy to affliction, although, like other remedies, they should come to our relief in private. Philosophy, we may be told, would prevent the tears by turning away the sources of them, and by raising up a rampart against pain and sorrow. I am of opinion that Philosophy, quite pure and totally abstracted from our appetites and passions, instead of serving us the better for being so, would do us little or no good at all. We may receive so much light as not to see, and so much philosophy as to be worse than foolish.’

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' *Hoffer*:

author in his deviations from the usual mode of spelling in a variety of instances, most of them very unimportant. — His antipathy to the French is unbounded, and affects every sentence that he writes in reference to their government, their manners, or their compositions. He even apologizes for having ‘debased these conversations by attention to a writer of so mean a cast as Boileau.’ He speaks of Voltaire as a writer of some irony indeed, but whose best tragedy is merely a wretched imitation of Shakspeare: a criticism which evinces a want of candor or of capacity in any one who has read either *Zayde* or *Mahomet*. — *È contra*, Mr. L. is a great admirer of Wordsworth and of Southey; and he not only devotes a dialogue (between Southey and Porson) to set forth the merits of the first and the conversational talents of the latter, but, in another, between Marchese Pallavicini and himself, he records with affection his own last interview with Southey; while a third, between Bishop Burnet and Humphrey Hardcastle, appears principally made to comment on the altercation between Lord Byron and Southey, and to depreciate the former poet under the feigned description of Lord Rochester’s reputed child, Mr. George Nelly.

If the author’s representation of himself be just, we cannot consider him as a very polite, or a very amiable, or a very modest personage. In concluding his conversation with Pallavicini, when the Marchese had observed that the houses of parliament should, for the honor of the nation, have animadverted on an outrage committed by an English General, the following is Mr. Landor’s reply: ‘These two fingers have more power, Marchese, than those two houses. A pen! he shall live for it. What, with their animadversions, can they do like this?’ — The notes, also, occasionally betray the same spirit, and shew that Mr. Landor’s representation of himself in the above extract is correct. Thus, in one place, he takes care to inform us, when speaking of Bonaparte; ‘although I did my utmost in pursuing this tyrant to death, recommending and insisting on nothing less, yet I acknowledge that I am sorry he is dead. Seeing what I see, I would preserve him as the countryman preserves the larger ant to consume the smaller, more numerous and more active in mischief.’ — In another dialogue, he says of himself: ‘I never in my life accepted a letter of introduction, nor ever expressed a wish, whatever I might have felt, for any man’s society.’

Mr. L. has not always preserved that suitableness between the character and the speeches attributed which is necessary in just dialogue. Whatever penances Father La Chaise may have imposed on Louis the Fourteenth, or however he may
have

have compromised them, we may be assured that neither the King nor the Confessor canvassed the matter in the ludicrous manner imputed to them in Mr. Landor's dialogue. In the same way, much of the dialogue between Cavaliere Puntomichino and Mr. Denis Eusebius Talcranagh, and the whole of the conversation between Bonaparte and the President of the Senate, are too broad caricatures to carry with them any plausibility. In some few instances, also, Mr. Landor even assigns to his characters sentiments quite the reverse of those which they are known to have entertained. The following sentence, for instance, we should but little expect from the mouth of Cicero: 'Could I begin my existence again, and what is equally impossible, could I see before me all I have seen, I would choose few acquaintances, fewer friendships, no familiarities.' The impropriety is rather aggravated than softened by a note which Mr. Landor subjoins to the paragraph, in which he observes, 'these are the ideas of a man deceived and betrayed by almost every one he trusted; but, if Cicero had considered *as I have often done*, that there never was an elevated soul, or warm heart since the creation of the world, which has not been ungenerously or unjustly dealt with, and that ingratitude has usually been in a fair proportion to desert, his vanity, if not his philosophy, would have buoyed up and supported him.' — In the dialogue between Lord Chatham and Lord Chesterfield, noble as that dialogue is in all respects, we feel at every step that, while the sentiments are most appropriate, the learning is entirely out of place; and that Lord Chatham never did talk about the rhythm of Plato, the physics of Democritus, or the moral mysteries of Pythagoras. — Some indecorums also occur in the story of the Japanese, subjoined to the dialogue between Casaubon and James, — in that which passes between Louis the Fourteenth and Father La Chaise, — and in the colloquy between Middleton and Magliabechi, which might have been spared without detracting either from the wit or the elegance of the compositions.

Nevertheless, in spite of these blemishes, we consider the present volumes as constituting a most important and valuable acquisition to the literature of the country. In the power and precision of his language, as well as in his affectations and peculiarities, the author bears a strong resemblance to Horace Walpole. We hope that, in a future edition, he will retrench the passages in which he is himself brought forwards in a manner that must appear ridiculous in all eyes but his own; and we heartily wish that he may conduct to its close a work which he announces in his preface as having been long projected

projected by him, comprehending a portion of the history of this country, — the same, we presume, which Aristoteles mentions in one of the dialogues as in his contemplation, — commencing with the birth of Philip, and terminating with the death of Alexander. We have no doubt that, in Mr. Landor's hands, such a production would bid fair for immortality.

ART. II. *Sabæan Researches*, in a Series of Essays, addressed to distinguished Antiquaries, and including the Substance of a Course of Lectures delivered at the Royal Institution of Great Britain, on the engraved Hieroglyphics of Chaldea, Egypt, and Canaan. By John Landseer, F. A. S., Engraver to the King, &c. Illustrated with Engravings of Babylonian Cylinders, and other inedited Monuments of Antiquity. 4to. pp. 413. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Hurst and Co.

"ANTIQUARIANISM," says Bishop Warburton in one of his letters to Bishop Hurd, "is to true literature what specious funguses are to the oak, which never shoot out and flourish till all the vigor and virtue of that monarch of the wood be effete, and near exhausted." This is eloquently said, and with a play of fancy: but, considered as an opinion, may be disputed. In truth, if this spot in literature were not cultivated, we know not what we should do with the surplus of our literary laborers: for every other topic of research, — the belles-lettres, history, biography, the drama, poetry, and criticism, — is overstocked with hands. As colonies, therefore, are peopled by the redundancy of inhabitants in parent-states, so is antiquarianism indebted for the culture which has lately been exercised on it to the great extension of our general letters, in which scarcely a nook or corner remains unoccupied. In the infancy of our national literature, indeed, there would have been neither leisure nor inclination for pursuits like these; and writers would have been too intent on objects that lay more immediately about them, or that were calculated to excite a more universal interest, than to have wasted their industry or their ingenuity on the uses and applications of certain oriental cylinders, constructed about 3000 years ago, which have quietly reposed in the earth for nearly the whole of that series of ages. At present, however, we can afford to lend a few of our literary workmen to this dark and laborious but useful department; and perhaps, if a still greater number of our writers, who have lately over-run us with poetry and novels, and books of travels, would exchange the pen for the pick-axe and shovel of the antiquary, we should be no losers by the alteration.

Mr. Landseer is well known to the world by his skill in engraving; and certainly the engravings that decorate the volume before us will by no means detract from his established reputation: while his essays in illustration of them exhibit him in the character of an erudite and laborious antiquary. The gems lately disinterred at Babylon, and brought to England by the celebrated oriental traveller, Captain Lockett, are the subjects of the first essay; and we shall select those parts of this disquisition, as well as of others, which we think are deserving of the attention of the general reader, or are such as the rapid hand of a reviewer can readily seize. Of these cylinders, many are formed of hæmetite; the rest are of cornelian, opal, jasper, agate, chalcedony, and other hard substances. The idea generally prevalent among antiquaries has been that these monuments, of which the greater part were collected during a residence of three weeks near the ruins of Babylon, and are now distributed in the British Museum, the Borghese palace, the museums of Germany, and the cabinets of the King of France and the distinguished antiquarians of that kingdom, are Persepolitan amulets. Mr. Landseer, however, like a true antiquarian knight, sallies forth to break lance with the holders of that hypothesis, and undertakes to prove that the gems in question were not originally worn as alismans or amulets, but used as SIGNETS; that is to say, that they were worn for the purposes of ratifying such social and religious transactions as required the sanctity of a pledge. A great portion of learned induction is employed in tracing them up to the antient customs of Chaldæa or Assyria; and we must acknowledge that, in many respects, that induction is highly satisfactory. Herodotus says that every Assyrian possessed a signet, or seal; and engraving, as it appears from the Pentateuch, was not of recent invention. The book of Exodus often repeats the words, "like the engravings of a signet;" that is, in *intaglio*, a common technical word distinguishing his mode of the art from engraving in *cameo*, or sculpture by incision, or from the *bas-relievo* so much used at the period of the Exod among the hieroglyphical engravers of Egypt. Mr. Landseer is supported on this head by the valuable opinion of Mr. Brand, and of Mr. Rich, the late lamented resident at Bagdad.

An ingenious argument is drawn also from the numbers of those gems that have been found at Babylon and Monsul, (the antient Nineveh,) their dimensions, and their peculiar forms. Thirteen of them were collected in three weeks at Babylon; scores were long previously to be seen in the various museums of Europe; and many are still to be bought of

the wandering pedlars of the East. Their dimensions ~~vary~~, some being only a tenth of the size of others : but ~~they are~~ generally from three-fourths of an inch to two inches long. Their form is cylindrical, though some of them have a small degree of concavity on their sides, like a dice-box : all of them are perforated longitudinally. By introducing, says Mr. Landseer, a metal axis, and mounting one of the engraved gems on the principle of a garden rolling-stone, it becomes at once a seal, easy to use, and copious in its contents. The longitudinal piercing, which through so hard a substance must have been a laborious operation, he conceives to have been for the reception of an axis, on which the cylinder revolved to make its impressions ; and, in clearing out the dirt from Captain Lockett's jasper-cylinder, he found in it the remains of a metallic axis. As to the smaller cylinders, it is conjectured that they were produced in a latter and more refined period of the art ; and as to the hollowness in the sides of some, Mr. L. ingeniously supposes it to have been a contrivance to adapt them more conveniently to the convexities of the human person, in the individual by whom they were worn. A modern snuff-box for the waistcoat-pocket is often fashioned for this purpose.

In the book of Job, a direct allusion is made to the ancient oriental mode of sealing. It occurs in the thirty-eighth chapter, in that sublime passage in which the Almighty asserts, in order to silence the dispute of Job with his neighbours, the truths of his own omnipotence, and asks ; " Hast thou caused the day-spring to know his place, that it might take hold of the ends of the earth ? *It is turned as clay to the seal,*" &c. &c. This passage has been a stumbling-block among the learned. Let us hear Mr. Landseer.

‘ I shall now request attention whilst I, fact by fact, and inference by inference, pursue the meaning of these verses in the manner that appears to me the most simple and perspicuous ; at the same time not disregarding that impressive opening of the chapter containing them, which, to the end of time, should sound awfully in the ears of biblical critics.

‘ The chapter begins, " Then the Lord answered Job out of the whirlwind, and said, Who is this that darkeneth counsel by words without knowledge ?" and after those grand interrogations which have been so frequently admired, respecting the formation of the earth, clouds, and sea, he proceeds : " Hast thou commanded the morning since thy days ? Hast thou caused the day-spring to know his place that it might take hold of the ends of the earth, that the wicked might be shaken out of it ?" —

‘ Some slight degree of confusion between the light of morning, and that religious light, or day-spring of truth and justice, to

which it is likened, must here be confessed to exist (at least in the English translation); and for the transition from literal light, to light personified and invested with knowledge and power, the idiom of the Hebrew language, or the elevated ardour of the poet's imagination, must be accountable. If it is not critical, it is grand: and scarcely does the want of grammatical construction throw even a faint shade over the general meaning of the sentence; nor does it affect at all the metaphor of the seal that follows, and which it is my purpose to explain. The day-spring to be understood in the second interrogation is poetically adverted to by St. Luke, (chap. i. ver. 7.) on the occasion of Zachariah's prophecy respecting the appearance of St. John the Baptist, the Aurora of the Sun of righteousness; where he says, "The day-spring from on high hath visited us, to give light to them that sit in darkness." In Job, however, the personified day-spring is made to "take hold of the ends of the earth, that the wicked might be shaken out of it:" that is to say, their wickedness being brought to light, the punishment which legal justice inflicts shall follow the exposure. This meaning results, even to the Bible-readers of the present day; but what more terrible sentiment must have been felt by those disputants who, throughout the poem, have been darkening counsel by words without knowledge, it might be thought foreign to our antiquarian purpose to attempt to explain.

The next verse proceeds, "It is turned as clay to the seal, and they stand as a garment," or, as the latter member of the sentence is rendered by Junius and Tremellius, "they present themselves like her coverings."

It seems here proper to note that, as the text implies, the sealing substance of the land of Uz, and probably that of the nations on the banks of the Euphrates, at this remote period, was clay, — the ooze of that river: the very same substance, levigated, perhaps, of which the stamped Babylonian bricks are formed; and the better sort of that pottery whose fragments abundantly bestrew the sites of Babylon and Susa, even at present; — the potter's clay of the ancient prophets, and what is still used for the purpose of sealing in some parts of the East. It may also be worthy of remark, that, of the various substances (such as waxes, pastes, &c.) on which I have tried to impress these ancient signets, I have found clay the fittest for the purpose both of receiving and retaining the impression; and though a Copernican objector might argue here, that it is not the light of the morning which is turned, but the earth toward the light, yet this would be casuistry: the poet who wrote this wonderful book probably believed otherwise; or, if this point be still regarded as of any importance, it may be answered, So does the signet which is compared to the earth, in fact, turn (on its axis, during the operation of impressing it) toward the clay; and if it be true, as Volney has asserted, that some of the oriental nations of antiquity believed the earth to be of a cylindrical form, and have so represented it among their hieroglyphics, the metaphor will be still more complete; and the words

contained in our English translation of the preceding verse, "that it might take hold of the ends of the earth," be expressively correct, whether we regard the word *it* as referring to the light of morning, or as denoting that searching ray of Providence which brings moral turpitude to view. The latter, however, is the meaning to which the text before us has more especial reference. "*It* is turned as clay to the seal, and *they* stand or present themselves as a garment," means, that the wicked, spoken of in the preceding verse, stand confessed, or exposed to view, like the embroidery of a garment at the approach of light. — Or rather, I think, when this verse is regarded, together with the preceding, the analogy is, that the wicked, and the dark contents of the engraving, are both cast off, as a garment is cast off, — a thing that has fitted and adhered.

'It is the blending of the literal and the figurative meanings together, (which is done in all the translations that I have had opportunity of consulting,) that has somewhat perplexed the passage, and conspired with their ignorance of cylindrical cygnets, and their non-advertence to the science of astronomy, to perplex also those commentators who have busied themselves in its explication. They have fancied that the seals of the land of Uz could be of no other form than that of the seals which are in modern use. But now that these revolving seals are produced, I should expect that the clouds of learned conjecture which have obscured the subject would be dispelled, and the meaning of this mysterious passage shine forth like the morning light in the superb metaphor before us: for, from the whole passage, when viewed with the signets, results an interesting and beautiful similitude between three dissimilar things; that is to say, between the light of morning beaming on, and passing round, a darkened world, and disclosing its contents; and that intellectual light, emanating from the Deity, which exposes in their true forms the dark deeds and moral deformities of the wicked; and the operation of impressing one of these ancient cylindrical signets on clay, which bends as the cylinder revolves in delivering its impression, stands around it curvately as a garment, (till you flatten it while in a moist state,) and renders conspicuous to view the dark contents of the intaglio-engraving.'

In his second essay, Mr. L. farther develops his hypothesis by references to history, to the original nature of signets, and to the antient practice and purpose of sealing. Though there be an established connection between signets and the act of sealing, and the noun *signet* and the verb *to seal*, yet the two words are of different philological families, as in the words *oath* and *to swear*: — but the distinction is usually unobserved. Thus, throughout the Hebrew Scriptures, the word **סֶגֶת** (*Chetham*, or *Ghotham*,) is employed to express both the signet and the impression; or, in other words, the impression is confounded with the matrix, while we are left to col-

which of them is meant from the context. *SIGNET* is of the same verbal family with *Signal*, *Ensign*, *Insignia*, &c.; the etymon from which these words have grown lies not in the word *signum*, but in the Hebrew *אֶתֶּן* *Ath* or which in English is faithfully rendered *sign*. The *ΣΗΜΑ* came from *שֵׁם* (*Shem*), which is *name*, not in the ordinary sense of that word as the sign representing an object, but in a mystical sense as prophetic of the future or indicative of the past. *Ath* or *sign* then primarily meant, *sign*, a mystic mark, bringing to the mind something absent; and few words in any language are more so metaphysical. What is a *signal*, for instance, but a mysterious appearance known only to the initiated? What is *ure*, but a sacred mental pledge, binding the future will of the signer, and 'the outward and visible mark of that which is in its nature mental, and not cognizable by external sense?'

So this family of words then belongs, and from this genealogy it springs, the word *signet*: its termination *et* meaning not in the abstract than advancement to the accomplishment of the purpose intended; which purpose, in the present case, is the designation of the sign: — or else this termination is merely a derivative, like the *ette* of the French, in which case *signet*, or *signet* can mean no other than literally a miniature *sign*.

It is well known that our Saxon ancestors, soon after the introduction of Christianity, when few men were clerks enough to execute a written deed by the subscription of their names, were contented instead thereof, as illiterate persons do at present, to affix a cross; of which it may be said, either that they made a mystic sign of the cross, or that the cross which they made was a sign of their plighted faith. It was the ordinary mode of signing among the Anglo-Saxon Christians, who were, with reference to their inability to write, in the predicament of most of the Sabæans of old, whose cygnets, or instruments of signing, we are not to consider, and some of whom lived, in all probability, before writing was invented.

Scarcely needs be added, that in both cases, as in the modern mode of signing by subscription of the name of the party, the sign was the sensible and permanent mark of invisible sentiment. Confusion, however, must be allowed to have arisen between the meaning of the words *signing*, and *sealing*, which in legal proceedings are now of consecutive execution; and it has arisen in the same manner.

In the dark ages which succeeded the overthrow of the Roman Empire, not only few men could write, but there were no artists capable of cutting seals; signature with the cross was therefore the Christians, in a great degree, a thing of necessity; and they sometimes made use of other ceremonies as signs, or seals. But when art began to re-appear, and engraved stones

to be raked up from the ruins of past ages, sealing was added; and as writing gradually became more known and practised, subscription of names came also into vogue, introduced at first, perhaps, by learned clerks, and by way of noting *whose* signature had ratified the deed that might be in question; for even Charlemagne was not penman enough to subscribe his own name, but was accustomed to sign with an antique gem, which had been set for that purpose in the pommel of his sword, saying, as he impressed it, "What I sign with the hilt, I will defend at the point of my sword."

Moreover, as the meanings of many words have been transitive, we cannot wonder that the superior pledge of faith, by the same degrees, came to be termed signing when applied to charters, treaties, or other bonds of written compact; especially as so it is, both virtually and in fact. The reader who is conversant in Holy Writ will recollect many passages, of which it may be sufficient for me to advert to two or three, where the words *signet*, *seal*, and *sign*, occur; always expressing the meaning which I have here annexed to them, — sealing being then understood as signing.

Mr. L. occupies many pages in endeavoring to establish the mystic sense of the Hebrew word, and wanders into an incidental speculation in which we cannot concur with him, — that our word *oath* has its radix in the Hebrew *Ath*. Nor do we in the least see how it would corroborate his theory, if it were conceded to him. Indeed, the mystic sense of the signet, for which he contends so strenuously, does not seem necessary to the main argument, that the engraved cylinders were used as signets for the more solemn covenants and instruments of social life: — but, once admitted into these obscure regions, or to use his own extravagant figure, 'places of assignation where sense and imagination assembled, and sometimes mingled incestuously; and where those monstrous chimeræ of superstition were engendered,' &c. &c., we must go on for awhile, and keep our feet as well as we can in the total obscurity which on all sides surrounds us. We do not venture, however, to conduct our readers through the "dark sojourn" of the second essay: — but we may venture to ask whether, if, according to the passage in Herodotus already mentioned, every Babylonian possessed a signet, (by which Mr. L. supposes every person above the condition of a slave,) the mystic or recondite sense of the signet was revealed to all persons who wore it, or whether it was an esoteric doctrine confined to the initiated? We were satisfied with the general explication of the uses to which the instrument was destined, but we cannot think that the hypothesis will sustain the load of all the additional conjecture which the learning, or rather the research, of Mr. L. has heaped on it.

The

The third and fourth essays are devoted by the author to the devices engraved on the signets, and he concludes that they were horoscopical ; as also that ' the Babylonian, or pious Sabæan of old, in affixing an impression from his signet to any legal deed, or by employing it as a sign, whereby the fixed attention of present witnesses as well as his own might be impressed with, and retain with more precision, the terms of any oral covenant, pledged himself by his tutelary constellations or planets, and by his faith in his future terrestrial destinies.' The engraving which heads the fourth essay is from an old and mutilated black cylinder belonging to Captain Lockett.

' Of the four or five engraved figures, which appear to have once surrounded this cylinder, three only, and some slight vestiges, remain : and of these three, which are clothed in the Babylonish costume, but two are sufficiently legible to be the subject of comment. The most forward, and least imperfect, of these, is an uncouth bull-horned, or crescent-crowned, figure, habited in what I should conceive Mr. Thomas Hope (an amateur who has successfully studied the dresses of the ancients) would call a plaited mantle or peplum, wrapped thrice round the wearer, and terminated by a fringe ; which, as that gentleman observes, has been represented by *Æschylus*, as a characteristic peculiarity of the peplum of the Asiatic nations, and which agrees also with the scriptural fame of the robe of Babylon : beneath this, as far as can now be distinguished, is a vest, which accords with the general description of *Herodotus*, of the Assyrian costume ; and if we except the head-dress, and the action of the right arm, this is the same figure which occurs in such numerous instances on those cylinders of Babylon, which I here presume, and shall finally shew, to be of subsequent date to the present, and which I believe to be — I shall not say the *Mylitta* of *Herodotus* and *Assyria*, but — the *Æstarte* of *Phœnicia* ; the *Juno-Venus*, subsequently, — as well as the *Diana*, and *Hecate*, of *Grecia* ; and the *Asteroth*, and *Baaltis*, — perhaps also the *Merodach* of *Holy Writ*. In fine, a personification of the moon.

' From the dissimilar accounts which the ancient mythologists have left us, of this great Sabæan deity, we are compelled to the inferences that some of those who wrote did not know how she was sculptured ; and that at different times and places she was variously represented ; as human knowledge and local sentiment differed, and as art and refinement learned to superinduce novelty and elegance, on rude nature and simplicity.

' From having been thus variously represented, and as variously named, the primitive goddess — the *Asteroth* (or *Asheroth*) of the sacred Scriptures — has become so disguised, so modernized, and be-Greek'd into *Junos*, *Hecates*, *Venuses*, &c. that we literally don't know her when we see her. — *Calmet* describes her as sometimes dressed in a long, and at others in a short, habit ; in her temple at *Libanus* her head was veiled ; according to *Cicero*

she was exhibited in Phœnicia with a quiver of arrows ; sometimes she appeared in a chariot : on the coins of Tyre she stands erect on the deck of a ship ; and on those of Carthage she is seated on a lion, and, wields a thunderbolt.'

In a long parenthetical discourse, Mr. Landseer is inclined to think that all the Sabæan monuments, in which the bull appears by himself or is mingled with the human form, have a reference to the asterism Taurus ; and he belabors poor Jacob Bryant for all which that industrious scholar has written about the Minotauri. He contends that the number of bronze-bulls, which have been dug up at Babylon, leave no room to doubt that a festival of Asteroth-Karnaim was held there, as well as in Egypt and Canaan ; — either a monthly feast in honor of the new moon, or an annual celebration of the festival of the first new moon, when the year opened with Sol and Luna in Taurus. All eastern nations commemorated the first new moon in the year ; and we agree with Mr. L. that these new-year festivals of Babylon and Judæa had their common origin with those of Egypt, Persia, and Greece. The bull-horned figure, therefore, on Captain Lockett's cylinder, the learned author conceives to be Asteroth-Karnaim : — but, if we say that it is not Asteroth-Karnaim, another supposition is ready to supply its place. It is certainly that bull-horned Ashteroth which always represents hieroglyphically the first new moon of the year, while Taurus remained the first of the zodiacal signs. Whoever the female figure is, she is leading another figure holding a quadruped, a ram or lamb, as Mr. L. conjectures : but it is almost obliterated. Other figures follow, which are too indistinct to be the subject of comment, but they were habited in the embroidered and fringed costume of Babylon. That our readers may form a faint conception of the wandering mazes of antiquarianism, in which some new hypothesis is here always arising, and which gives birth in its turn to a new progeny of suppositions, we beg their attention to Mr. L.'s farther explication of the cylinder.

' The bearded figure which holds the quadruped, I conceive, may be intended for Baâl, Beel, or Bel (the personified sun), the chief deity of Babylonia, (of whom I shall have much future occasion to treat,) in possession of Aries. — In short, the Baalammon of Solomon's Song. — The Baalammon of Solomon's Song, I may be told, was a place so named : but, granting this, it was clearly so named in honour of the great Sabæan deity. If it be not the very city now called Baal-bec, it must have been situated near it, and could not have been very far from the place called after Asteroth-Karnaim. I should suppose that the name

Baal-

Baal-ammon, must have been conferred on this place, at the remote era, when, at the season of the vernal equinox, (the commencement of the Chaldean year) the sun was no longer found to be in the sign Taurus, but had begun to enter that of Aries; — when it had even begun to be publicly acknowledged to have made this important transit, — and the Ram became in its turn the leader of the celestial signs; which by the help of a few numerals would give the probable date of the naming of the district of Baal-ammon; a part of Canaan which I have elsewhere presumed to be the site of the city built by King Solomon, and called by him Baal-ath.

‘ There is allowed to be mystery in Solomon’s Song. It is therefore possible, and even not unlikely, that the poet’s allusion may not be to the place called Baâl-ammon, or Baâl-ath; but that the lovely shepherdess or vine-keeper, who stood so high in the royal favour, might have been a *native* of Baal-ammon in the astrological sense of those words; that is to say, born while the sun was in Aries, and courted while Solomon was an apostate. — But I find myself wandering — if not from the text — from one of my own purposes, which is, to pass over the differences of construction that may here arise between those who contend that this “Song of Songs” was a love-song, and those who profess to believe that it is a church-song.

‘ If, as is supposed above, the sun had recently entered the sign Aries at the time specified in this gem; which appears not improbable, and which would confer on the engraving an antiquity of about four thousand years; the device may have had reference to that Babylonian festival (of *Neomenia*, to call it by a Greek word) which was celebrated at the first crescent, or new, moon, of every new year, during a period when, Mazzaroth not being exactly in its season (though not far from it), there existed a slight discrepancy between solar and lunar time: Baâl and the equinox having moved into Aries, while Asteroth at the commencement of the year was found to be in Taurus. — I assume that the stations of the sun and moon were here obliged to be specified; but, as David sings, “the moon was the sign of feasts;” and while the calendar was disarranged, — that is to say, when the sun and moon were not concordant at the vernal season, — lunar time appears to have over-ruled and governed the solar, — at least in the exoteric astronomy of the Chaldeans, — probably because the fixed stars, which served to mark the stations of the planets, were visible to the *multitude* at night, who could not with the same ease and certainty know the sun’s place by day.’

What will be said if, after all, this ingenious fabric crumbles into dust? Supposing that the device, notwithstanding so many prolix pages about Asteroth-Karnaim, has no reference whatever to a Babylonian festival, — why then it may relate to a nativity of the individual who first used it as a signet; and, in that case, he must have come into the world at the commencement of the Chaldean year, viz. about 4000 years

years ago. — As a good specimen of the manner and style of an antiquary, we insert the following accumulation of words; observing only that similar digressions are perpetually recurring. Mr. L. is addressing the late Mr. R. P. Knight, and attacking Jacob Bryant, Dr. Hyde, and others, for pretending to restore the figures of the constellations in Aldus's Collection of the Antient Astronomical Poets.

‘How different from all this, Sir, have been the exemplary publications of the Society of Dilletanti since you have been concerned in them, cannot be necessary to be stated, where those publications have been seen. A more accurate age of investigation than we have just passed will not fail to perceive with surprise and regret, how meretriciously Mr. Jacob Bryant, Dr. Hyde, and others, have “restored” (as they term it), and in so doing, defaced, vulgarised, or falsified, almost every antique they have touched; and how others have confounded the crude conceptions of a cinque-cento wood-carver of slender attainments, with the abstruse mysteries of ancient astronomy; at once acknowledging, and deteriorating the value of, a species of evidence, which when compared with the pranks and vagaries of etymological research — Research! should we call it? (as this verbal harlequinadery is sometimes carried on) — Etymological announcement, rather — is as revealed truth to the very essence of equivocation. I know that the learned scholars that I have named, and others whom I could name, have long since been placed in their niches as men of erudition. They are our friends: but Sincerity “is our sister;” and I am much mistaken if it should any longer be dissembled, that it has been by far too much the custom of this class of writers to enter the sacred enclosures of ART, without due reverence for the sanctity and purity of its truths. They find her paradise open, and toward her tree of knowledge they rush, combining more than the temerity, with less than the excuse, of our first parent. They devour more of its fruit than they can digest, and canker and bruise more than they can devour. As nothing can be easier than by such means to infuse the colour of a pre-conceived hypothesis, so nothing in the present state of the science of antiquarian investigation, when the public attention is laudably directed towards the topography and the ancient attainments of older nations than our own, is more seriously to be deprecated.’

The remaining essays contained in Mr. Landseer's voluminous and desultory work we really are forbidden by our limits to analyze. Each of them involves discussions which, by the perpetual starting up of digressive and parenthetical matter, and by a style of writing in which the author has evinced an admirable facility in the art of making use of two words where one would have been sufficient, are prolonged beyond the utmost patience even of an antiquarian reader. We have, therefore, selected only those passages which are most likely

likely to be generally interesting. Yet we have found, scattered over the book, many useful and ingenious biblical illustrations which may be consulted with advantage. With regard to his theories, Mr. L. has unquestionably assembled a large array of authorities: but we have before hinted at the distinction between research and erudition. He who explores libraries to establish a specific hypothesis will be careful to select those only which lead to the deduction that he anticipates; and it is inconceivable how happy a system-maker is to elicit a direct sense from that which at best is ambiguous, or to render that doubtful and neutral which is decidedly against him. We have often observed something of this in the framers of antiquarian theories; and even the real erudition and extensive reading of Dr. Pritchard, in his *Enquiries into the Egyptian Mythology*, did not prevent the bias of which we speak. The signets, however, are no doubt invaluable monuments, even if they do not throw all the elucidation on the antient Assyrian and Chaldaic superstitions, or on their astrological and astronomical systems, which Mr. L. ascribes to them. We are disposed to admit the simple hypothesis, that the engraved cylinders were used as signets and worn near the person: but, as to the brood of systems and inferences of which the author has rendered them prolific, we must preserve the silence of doubt and scepticism. Mr. Landseer would be disposed perhaps to warn us off, if we went farther. Antiquarian disquisitions often lead to dark and inaccessible regions; and we feel, as we approach them, something not unlike the awe which fenced from vulgar intrusion the sacred grove in the *Œdipus* of Sophocles, — the mysterious grove consecrated to the daughters of night.

Ἄθιπτος, ὃδ' ὀλίγος· αἱ γὰρ ἔμποδοι
Θεαὶ σφ' ἔχουσι, γῆς τε καὶ οὐρανόθεν.

ART. III. *Sylla*; a Tragedy, in Five Acts. Translated from the French of M. Jouy, Member of the Institute at Paris. 8vo. pp. 170. 5s. 6d. Boards. Underwoods. 1824.

ON the merits of the original French tragedy, of which a translation is here offered to us, we have already given our opinion, and we are not disposed to alter it: on the contrary, our impression, that it does not belong to the highest order of the drama, is corroborated by seeing it in an English form.* We remarked also on the long discourse

* See Appendix to M. R. vol. cii. p. 514.

called a "*Préambule Historique*:" but we did not notice all its objectionable parts, and perhaps we did not feel them so forcibly while they remained in their native French. Certainly, the translation has made us much more sensible of the inanity and unmeaning verbosity of a kind of writing, which, however brilliant it may be considered in France, will obtain little or no applause among those readers, who expect that a writer should address their understandings rather than tickle their ears. The following accumulation of words may serve as an instance:

'Reputations are formed by chance: contemporary writers receive them ready made to their hands, and, for the most part, transmit them to posterity undiscussed and unexamined. Years, centuries flow on, and the echo of the feelings of the moment, repeated from age to age, forms that equivocal and monotonous rumour to which we give the appellation of History. The names of Cyrus, Alexander, Sylla, Cesar, Mahomet, Gengiskan, strike the ear, and impress the mind with a vague and ill-comprehended idea of greatness. A thousand writers have treated of their virtues, their crimes, their glory; but their personal character remains not a whit the less a problem. The same clouds that enshroud the destiny of individuals darken also that of nations, — What was Egypt? One vast monastery, where some hundreds of hypocritic monks, whose kings were but indeed first subjects, governed a stupid and superstitious people. Yet how can the opinions of the historians who make this assertion be relied on; controverted as they are by others, who represent the kingdom of the Pharaohs as an admirable theocracy, based on principles of the most profound wisdom? What idea have we of Rome? That republic, sovereign mistress of the world, had a cavern for her cradle; yet gave she birth to heroes, as other nations would give birth to men, and grandeur in every thing appears to have been her element. Recall we to mind her crimes, opposed to them are found her unexampled virtues; abandon we ourselves to the enthusiasm which her virtues inspire, and there will not be wanting [*what?*] to prove that her crimes, as a nation, have exceeded those which the tribunicial justice of every clime has prosecuted and punished in the severest manner. In starting such doubts, it is not indeed my intention to resolve them, but to shew that they are equally applicable to Rome, and the most extraordinary man she ever gave birth to, the terrible and mysterious Sylla.'

We confess that we have not any clue to guide us through this labyrinth of words. If M. Jouy means to say that the greater part of those events, which are called historical, are darkened by fable, and are not to be implicitly believed, we shall immediately concur with him: but, if history be written correctly and philosophically, the mist of fable instantly disappears; and those facts, which are doubtful or
uncertain,

uncertain, are passed as being beyond our power to ascertain, or that which is doubtful and uncertain becomes sifted and examined till it appears in its genuine light. The history of antient nations, indeed, is necessarily imperfect in some of its parts: but still a clear, perspicuous, and authentic detail of its events, of the characters and the influencing motives of the leading men, of the principles of antient polity, of the divisions of party, and the habits and manners of the people, may be as thoroughly known to a diligent historical student, who consults the purest and best sources, and scrupulously takes care not to be misled by writers of doubtful accuracy, as the events of the most modern of our annals.

For the popularity of M. Jouy's play, in France, we can account by the admirable acting of Talma; and in no slight degree by the analogy instantly perceivable in the character of Sylla, as he has drawn it, and that of the late Emperor. Yet how would the following English lines, which are almost literally translated, be received by an English audience, though put into the mouth of any of our first-rate theatrical declaimers? They occur in the scene in which the son of Sylla first implores the pardon of Claudius, whose name has been hung up on the tablets of proscription; and then reminds his father, with filial tenderness and solicitude, of the dangers impending over the Dictator himself from the popular exasperation. This is one of the most admired passages in the original; and the answer of Sylla, in the mouth of Talma, produces the finest effect: — far from undeservedly; for it is vigorously written, and abounds in the more simple and severe graces which we seldom discern in French poetry.

Sylla. Beneath the fate predestinate to fall
Upon our heads, calmly I march amidst
A thousand tempests. Had it been but ours
T' have lived, O Faustus! in those times when Heaven
Beheld the Romans virtuous, free, and proud
Of poverty by glory's ray ennobled,
Fight boldly for their country, die and conquer;
They should, my son, have seen me, Decius' rival,
Surpass the valour of Rome's bravest sons.
Those days are far, far gone; the laws no more
Have power as wont: while ancient Liberty
Beneath Licentiousness expires, and Rome,
The despot of the world, is now become
But one vast prize open to adverse factions.
Forced to renounce the virtues that adorn'd
That by-gone age, I bow myself to Fortune;
For it was she that formed me, it was she
That raised me thus to greatness, in despite

Of my own wishes ; I received the gift,
 But with it not her law. I have o'erturned
 The state but to rebuild it ; I was born,
 I feel it, to upraise or to destroy :
 And I fulfil my destiny. I lead
 T'wards Liberty a powerful people, though
 'Tis by enslaving them I do it.'

The lines of the original, placed under the reader's eye, will instantly enable him to see how poor a figure French dramatic writing makes when literally translated into our language ; and we confess that we should be sorry to see Corneille or Racine the victims of a similar experiment.

*“ Sous la fatalité, qui pèse sur nos têtes,
 Avec calme je marche au milieu des tempêtes.
 Si nous vivions, Faustus, dans ces âges fameux,
 Où l'on vit les Romains, libres et vertueux,
 Fiers d'une pauvreté par la gloire ennoblée,
 Combattre, triompher, mourir pour la patrie,
 On me verrait, mon fils, rival des Decius,
 De tous ces grands Romains surpasser les vertus.
 Ces temps sont loin de nous, les lois n'ont plus d'empire,
 L'antique liberté sous la licence expire ;
 Et Rome, après avoir dompté les nations,
 N'est qu'une immense proie offerte aux factions.
 Forcé de renoncer aux vertus d'un autre âge,
 J'adorais la fortune, et je suis son ouvrage.
 Sa faveur au pouvoir m'appela malgré moi :
 Je reçus ses bienfaits sans accepter sa loi ;
 Je renversai l'Etat, mais pour le reconstruire ;
 J'étais né, je le sens, pour fonder ou détruire :
 J'accomplis mes destins, et vers la liberté,
 Je ramène en esclave un peuple épouvanté.”*

It is observable that this play affords a striking proof of the inconveniences resulting to the drama of the French people from their favourite unities. Sylla, the tyrant, whose sleep is haunted by midnight visions, who is surrounded by plots and conspiracies, and who is even doubtful of his son's fidelity, chooses for his bed-chamber the very room in which Aufidius, Lænas, Claudius, and Valeria, had assembled to conspire his death !

The quotation which we have given will shew that this translation is rather faithful than polished.

ART. IV. *Illustrations of the Enquiry respecting Tuberculous Diseases.* By John Baron, M.D. &c. 8vo. pp. 233. 15s. Boards: Underwoods.

ART. V. *Essay on the Effects of Iodine on the Human Constitution; with Practical Observations on its Use in the Cure of Bronchocele, Scrophula, and the Tuberculous Diseases of the Chest and Abdomen.* By W. Gairdner, M.D. 8vo. pp. 64. Underwoods. 1824.

ABOUT the year 1819, Dr. Baron published an ingenious essay on that singular tuberculous degeneration of serous membranes, which is occasionally to be found in strumous subjects; and he was then led by the observations and experiments of the illustrious Jenner, as well as by the results of his own experience, to promulgate the opinion that all tubercles and other tumours originate from hydatids, and that by the various transformations of these bodies the multiplied forms of such morbid growths are all produced. In his advertisement to that treatise, he intimated his intention of publishing, at some future period, farther illustrations of this subject; together with "Observations on Diseases of Mucous Surfaces, and on some other Affections of the Serous Membranes of the Thorax and Abdomen." The volume before us is presented in fulfilment of that promise; although it does not by any means fully accomplish what Dr. Baron appears at that time to have proposed to execute. To describe briefly its contents, we may state that it consists of Strictures on Medical Reasoning with reference to the Philosophy of Lord Bacon; Remarks on the Progress of the Pulmonary Tubercle; Criticisms on the Writings of those whose Opinions regarding Tuberculous Diseases, both in Men and in the Lower Animals, have been most highly esteemed; and Remarks on the Treatment of these Affections.

Dr. Baron has expressed, in nine propositions, the substance of his doctrine regarding the origin and growth of tubercles and other tumours; and, as they afford a fair summary of his opinions, we shall present them to our readers.

' First, then, I affirm, "that tubercles exist in almost every texture of the body, and that their origin and essential character will probably be found to be the same, wherever they are discovered."

' 2. That tubercles in their commencement are small vesicular bodies (*i. e.* hydatids) with fluid contents.

' 3. That these bodies subsequently undergo transformations, on the nature of which their tuberculous character depends; that these transformations are progressive, but not uniform, and that it is only in the larger bodies of this kind that they can be accurately traced.

traced. That they commence with an opaque spot, which advances with different degrees of rapidity, and ultimately converts both the contained and containing parts into substances very different from what they were at first.

' 4. That on the size and relative position and structure of the tubercles, which are thus formed, depend the characters of many of the most formidable disorganizations, to which the human body is exposed.

' 5. That considering the transmutations, which these bodies undergo, the condition in which they may be found will be modified by the time at which they may happen to be examined.

' 6. That it is rarely that we can have an opportunity of seeing the first steps of these morbid phenomena in the human subject, because the tubercles are generally formed, and the elementary character of course lost, before death permits us to make enquiries respecting altered or morbid structure.

' 7. That some tumours are formed by the aggregation of tubercles, and that the characters of such bodies are materially influenced by the relative position and contents of the elementary parts, of which they may happen to have been composed; or in other words, that "varieties in the arrangement of the elementary parts of morbid growths will of course cause corresponding varieties in their appearance."

' 8. That, therefore, diversity of appearance in tubercles or tumours does not imply diversity of origin, for it has been demonstrated that substances and textures of very different properties may be found even within the same cyst, thereby merely denoting different gradations in the changes to which these bodies are liable.

' 9. That the disorganizations above referred to are not the product of any species of inflammation, and that though inflammation may attend their growth, and modify the symptoms which they occasion, yet it is very different both in its origin and consequences from that species which attacks a part unaltered by previous disease; that in the first instance it is to be considered as the consequence, and in the latter as the cause of altered texture.

In his remarks on the writings of different authors, Dr. B. has pointed out many passages which tend to shew the connection between hydatids and tubercles. Morgagni has related various instances of the co-existence of hydatids and tubercles; and he has stated his belief that hydatids often burst, and that their coats shrivel and are converted into tubercles. Such an idea, however, will not suit the hypothesis of the present author, and it is therefore rejected by him as an idle speculation. It would have pleased him better, had that illustrious pathologist 'confined himself to the simple fact that hydatids do become tubercles, and left his speculation as to the manner of their becoming so out of the question.' (P. 75.) This is a little unreasonable; for nothing appears more consonant to what

what we know of the animal economy than the process described by Morgagni; nor is it at all inconsistent with the actual occurrence, in other instances, of those changes of the entire hydatid which Dr. Baron conceives that he has demonstrated. The most powerful assistance, however, which he has obtained in corroboration of his opinions, has been found in the writings of M. Dupuy, the distinguished veterinary professor of Alfort, and in those of M. Laennec. The experiments of Dr. Jenner appear to us to have decidedly proved that the hydatid of the rabbit undergoes a natural transformation into tubercle; and the dissections of domestic animals by Professor Dupuy have conducted him, in some instances at least, to the same conclusion.

"We have found," says that gentleman, "hydatids and tubercles in the same subject, and often in the same *viscus*; and in the cyst which inclosed the hydatids we have found the commencement of the deposit of the tuberculous matter; which would warrant us in believing that one may succeed to the other." (BARON, p. 54.)

"We remarked between the internal surface of the cyst and the hydatid a small quantity of a yellow substance like bone which had been reduced to powder. We have seen in other cows affected with tuberculous disease that the quantity of bony matter was greatest when the internal surface was unequal, and especially when the cyst contained decayed, bluish, and decomposed hydatids. This circumstance would make one believe, that the disease is of ancient date when tubercles are formed. In that case, these different transformations are to be considered as the successive states of the same malady." (BARON, p. 57.)

These particulars certainly afford strong evidence of the actual conversion of hydatids into tubercles.

M. Laennec, in his account of the pulmonary tubercles, asserts that their primitive form is that of small semi-transparent grains, sometimes diaphanous, and almost without color; and that from this shape they are gradually transformed into the solid tubercle, nearly in the manner described by Dr. Baron. When speaking also of tubercular granulations of the pleura and peritonæum, he employs language exactly similar to that which we have above mentioned:—but, besides this, he conceives that tubercles may be deposited at once in their solid form, and admits even the possibility of other modes of origin. It is certainly a hardy assertion to aver, as Dr. Baron has done, that our knowledge of the obscure subject of pulmonary disease is already so perfect, that we have detected the single and only way in which tubercles are formed; and we are therefore disposed, instead of censuring M. Laen-

nec, to give him credit for the considerate and philosophical manner in which he has expressed himself on this subject.

Dr. Baron labors to prove that the semi-transparent grains of M. Laennec, which form the first germs of tubercles, are no other than hydatids; and he avails himself of a slight inaccuracy in the employment of the word cyst, to shew that M. Laennec believed them to be identical. It is impossible, however, to misunderstand the meaning of that gentleman, if we refer to the passage in which he speaks of cysts properly so called, and cysts containing vesicular worms or hydatids. — It appears to us that the great error of Dr. Baron, throughout this part of the discussion, has been the confounding of the vesicular germ of tubercle with the true hydatid. Distinctly formed hydatids, as well as tubercles, have been found in the lungs, and are described by all our pathologists: but they are extremely rare when compared with tubercles: — a fact which ill accords with the hypothesis of Dr. Baron. Why do these supposed hydatids not more frequently escape this almost congenital transformation, and exhibit themselves in their animalcular shape? That it is not a necessary step in the progressive history of the hydatid, we have sufficient evidence in the multiplied instances of whole clusters and nests of these animalcules, which have been found in various parts of the body without any traces of incipient transformation. The researches into the structure of the semi-transparent form of the tubercle have not shewn that it is identical with hydatid; and the fact of its early solidification furnishes, in our opinion, a strong argument for believing that it is distinct in its nature.

The zeal of Dr. B. in favor of his hypothesis has led him to apply it not only to tuberculous diseases but to cancer also, to fungus hæmatodes, and even to fatty tumours. (Enquiry, pp. 228, 229.) The simplicity of such an explanation of morbid phænomena has rarely been equalled: but the heterogeneous nature of the objects, which he has thus attempted to crowd under one head, furnishes evidence that they cannot all have a common origin. The scrofulous tubercle is an unorganized substance, while the other three morbid growths are all organized, and each in a way peculiar to itself. In illustration of the supposed origin of fungus hæmatodes from hydatid, Dr. B. has traced the disease from its most exquisitely formed condition through every gradation until it reaches the sound substance.

‘A section of a muscle,’ he says, ‘when first attacked by the disease in question, presents to the eye a reticulated-looking texture, with the cavities filled up with a transparent gelatinous substance; the original fibrous structure is still visible.’

completely supplanted by this new formation. The process of congeries of unconnected vesicles and seen in the same tissue. In other parts of the same tissue, the vesicles have been further advanced, this simple and elementary process is going on, which ultimately results in the process which it attacks, into those irregular conglomerates that are supposed to be characteristic of the advanced stages.

We cannot receive this as evidence of the origin of tubercles from hydatids. As well might we suppose the vesicular appearance which is seen in the field of the microscope, that it is the result of extremely minute hydatids.

If our limits permitted, we might refer to some able strictures by the author of the *Revue*, Broussais, and Abernethy. In the *Revue*, the writers, Dr. B. has pointed out the extreme doctrine, which ascribes to the existence of tubercles and some other morbid action, it is true, is often caused by the morbid bodies excite; and the existence of tubercles in parts quickens their growth, and the whole train of morbid phenomena. It is necessary to remark that he has not Lord Bacon the subject of the *Revue*. Justice, however, requires us to say that has not always been perfectly correct. (See pp. 150, 151.)

Dr. Baron has committed several errors and unphilosophical mode of reasoning among modern French writers. He has served, has found many mistakes, in the Channel. The opinions of MM. Lacroix and others, of error. Dr. B. has committed an inaccuracy of language. He had avoided such errors. A change of structure.

The views presented of tubercular diseases, remedies, which are the absorption of the morbid matter, and the most approved most.

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swellings and apparent tubercular disease of the peritonæum, with one case of presumed tubercular phthisis, are detailed; and they all afford highly gratifying, though certainly not altogether conclusive, evidence of the benefits likely to result from the use of iodine. The case of phthisis was treated with the most judicious remedial means which we possess, in conjunction with hydriodate of potass; and the progress of the affection was decidedly arrested: but we are not sanguine enough to believe that it has been cured by the absorption of the tubercles which, there was strong reason for supposing, existed in this case.

While the present volume forms an interesting sequel to Dr. B.'s preceding Enquiry, it affords additional proofs of the connection between hydatids and tuberculous diseases: but we still feel unable to admit, in its full extent, the hypothesis which he advocates. That hydatids are often actually converted into tubercles, we think, has been fully established: but that this is the only origin of tubercular growths remains in our opinion yet to be proved. The speculations of the author, if they have not been successful in establishing the truth of all his opinions, have at least this claim on our gratitude, that they have presented us with a more complete and accurate account of the tubercular diseases of serous membranes than we previously possessed.

The essay of Dr. Gairdner on Iodine may with propriety be introduced with the work of Dr. Baron to the notice of our readers; since his experience tends to confirm the favorable reports of that gentleman regarding the remedial powers of this drug in tubercular affections. Dr. G. gives a well written account of the effects of iodine on the human body, and of its efficacy as a medicinal substance. The powerful and highly deleterious influence, which this drug is capable of exerting on the animal economy, renders it indeed of vital importance that its true nature and best mode of management should be correctly communicated to the profession. Dr. Gairdner has subjoined formulæ for the internal as well as external employment of this medicine; for, although fully aware of the dangerous nature of the agent which he thus recommends to the public, he has not been led, like some other physicians, to proscribe its internal use; and we are inclined to indulge the belief that, under the judicious caution which he inculcates, improved by the lessons of more mature experience, iodine will ultimately prove a medicine of safe and manageable efficacy. In the mean time, the treatise of Dr. Gairdner well deserves the attentive perusal of those who would make trial of this remedy: since it contains a clear and interesting
account

account of the most important facts known respecting it, and, though certainly too brief, is on the whole the best publication on the subject in the English language.

ART. VI. *Practical Observations in Surgery.* By Henry Earle, F.R.S. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 229. 8s. Boards. Underwoods. 1823.

ALTHOUGH we are by no means fond of controversy in medicine or surgery, we think that there are cases in which it behoves the friends of truth and free inquiry to disregard all fears of incurring unpopularity, or even odium, by impugning the doctrines of those who stand at the summit of their profession. The pre-eminence and surpassing surgical talents of Sir Astley Cooper need no aid from our pen to increase their celebrity: but the judgments of such an individual, carrying with them the powerful weight of his authority, demand for that reason a more than usually keen scrutiny. We confess, therefore, that we feel indebted to Mr. Earle, for the manly and able manner in which he has come forwards to discuss, and freely to criticize, the opinions of the most eminent of our English surgeons.

The first and most important of the papers, contained in this publication, refers to the long debated question of the possibility of the union of fracture of the neck of the thigh-bone within the capsule of the joint. Sir A. Cooper, in his extensive and valuable work on Fractures and Dislocations, does not venture, indeed, to deny the possibility of union in the case above mentioned: but the whole of his reasoning, and all his experiments, are obviously intended to impress on the minds of his readers a conviction that the union of the neck of the thigh-bone, when fractured within the capsule, has never been seen; and is not to be expected; and he has accordingly enjoined a mode of practice, founded on the belief that any attempt to accomplish this union will prove altogether fruitless. Mr. Earle, on the other hand, is convinced that he has met with several cases of fracture of the neck of the thigh-bone within the capsule taking place, in which the union of the bone was effected without any lameness or perceptible shortening of the limb; although no opportunity occurred of verifying the fact by examination after death. He has also detailed the particulars of an instance in which union of the bone within the capsule was actually ascertained: but to this case it has been objected, that a separation of the fragments was caused by long continued boiling. It is obvious, however, that an union so firm as to resist every thing but

boiling was adequate to all the purposes of progression; and that a longer period than thirteen weeks, which was all that had elapsed from the date of the fracture, would have accomplished a perfect osseous consolidation of the fragments. A case is likewise quoted by Mr. Earle, from *Erudleus*, in which an union of the fractured neck with exuberance of callus is said to have been produced. The details are not very explicit, or minute: but the author distinctly states that a fracture had taken place, and that the woman was lame from the time of the injury till her death. We have tolerably good evidence that no strumous affection (as some have inconsiderately supposed) had existed in this case, for the ligaments and tendons are stated by the narrator to have been discovered in a perfectly sound condition. Other cases, not noticed by Mr. Earle, have been collected by continental writers: but the authority of them has in general been disputed, by declaring that the point of fracture is exterior to the capsule. Thus, then, it is admitted by all that union of the fractured neck of the thigh-bone, exterior to the capsule, is by no means a very rare occurrence. In determining, therefore, agreeably to the doctrine of Sir A. Cooper, in what cases we are to attempt the union of the fractured bone, and in what to abandon it as hopeless, it is of great importance to discover some indications by which the two species of injury may be distinguished. The diagnostic marks, on which that gentleman seems chiefly to rely, are the degree of shortening, and the age of the patient. Sir Astley is of opinion that the greater degree of shortening occurs when the fracture is within the capsule: but Mr. Earle has exhibited strong reasons for believing, that the shortening is greater when the fracture has taken place exterior to the capsule. In a recent case of fracture of the neck of the thigh-bone within the capsule of the joint, which we ourselves lately inspected after death, scarcely any displacement of the fragments was found, and a great part of the reflected membrane covering the neck was perfectly entire.

The fracture exterior to the capsule is said by Sir A. C. to be seen almost exclusively in persons under the age of fifty, while the fracture within the joint is regarded by him as nearly limited to those who are more advanced in life. This opinion also has been disputed by Mr. Earle, and satisfactory instances to the contrary are adduced in his work. With regard to the utility of this point of diagnosis as to the exact situation of the fracture of the neck of the thigh-bone, Mr. E. has made the following judicious remarks:

• *Specti-*

‘ Speculations on the exact seat of the fracture will, I believe, very often lead to error, as it must require a much nicer discrimination than falls to the lot of most men, and a far greater freedom of examination of the affected limb, than can ever be warranted, to enable us to pronounce with any degree of accuracy. To those who believe that bony union cannot take place, a wrong inference may lead to very injurious practice; and to those who entertain an opposite opinion, such inquiries are useless, as of course they will be induced to treat every case to the best of their abilities, and, in all, endeavour to obtain union without deformity.’

If it seems to have been proved that the causes, which impede the union of the fractured neck of the thigh-bone, do not by any means always prevent it from taking place, yet a careful consideration of these causes is very important, as it affords the only means of devising a successful method of treatment in this accident. It has been generally conceived that the ossifying powers of the upper fragment of the bone are very feeble, and quite inadequate to the task of effecting union: but it is to be remembered that the reflected membrane covering the neck is seldom completely torn through, so as to leave the head attached merely by the round ligament; and thus a supply of blood is preserved from below as well as from above. We are convinced, moreover, that the under portion of the bone is fully equal to furnish ample materials for a medium of union, and that all which is required in the upper fragment is simply the possession of vitality: — but, to shew how strong the ossifying powers of the upper fragment often are, we find in old cases, where it is attached only by the round ligament, that the fractured surface presents patches of ivory-like substance, which must be ascribed to a process of life, and not to the action of mere attrition. The great impediment to an union of the fractured neck of the thigh-bone arises, unquestionably, from the difficulty of preserving the divided surfaces in opposition, and preventing their continual motion one on the other; and, of all the inventions which have been employed for accomplishing this object, none seems to offer so fair a promise of success as the bed invented by Mr. Earle, and described at great length by him in the present volume. It was submitted to the Society for the Encouragement of Arts and Manufactures, and obtained for its author the reward of the large gold medal.

The ardour of Mr. E. in treating a favorite subject has, we regret to say, occasionally betrayed him into a warm and peremptory mode of expression, which the nature of the discussion did not require, and which was likely to be productive of irri-

tation in the mind of the individual whose doctrines were thus criticized. We were particularly sorry to observe the charge of cruelty, brought against those who feel it to be their duty to make free and long continued examinations of cases of fracture near the head of the thigh-bone. Mr. Earle has also taken rather an unfair advantage of the manner in which Sir A. Cooper speaks of his satisfaction, on finding that the doctrine taught by him for thirty years, respecting fracture within the capsule of the hip-joint, is confirmed by the observations of others. The distinguished surgeon just named does not mean that he is happy in the conviction that such cases are incurable without lameness, but that he is gratified by having taught that which is correct. No man, we are convinced, has a heart more susceptible of delight from knowing that the sum of human misery has been diminished: while none would be more distressed by the discovery, that for a long series of years he had been conveying to his numerous pupils erroneous instructions. Mr. Earle is himself conscious that an unpleasant meaning may be attached to some of his expressions, and has accordingly apologized for such unintentional offence in the following manner, than which nothing could have been more ample except the actual cancelling of the passages in question:

‘On an attentive and dispassionate revise of the following work, since the sheets have been printed off, some expressions appear to have escaped me in the warmth and hurry of composition, which may possibly admit of a construction very different from my wishes or intentions. I am anxious, therefore, most distinctly to disclaim the slightest feeling of disrespect towards the author whose work I have reviewed; and should any passages appear to the reader as too strongly expressed, I must entreat his indulgence in referring them to the ardour of a person writing on a subject which has occupied much of his attention, who was anxious to establish opinions which he has long entertained, and to introduce a practice which he hopes will be found beneficial. In doing so, it was necessary to examine critically the foundations on which the opposite opinions were built. In contending, however, against the doctrines of Sir A. Cooper, nothing was ever more remote from my intention than to attempt to detract from the acknowledged and well merited reputation of that gentleman; and it would cause me real pain to suppose that any personal feeling could be excited by the perusal of the following pages.’

The volume contains several other ingenious papers, the first of which refers to the fracture of the *olecranon*; and here Mr. Earle has pointed out a circumstance well deserving of attention. In recent cases of this injury, when the *aponeurotic* expansion covering the *olecranon* is still entire, the retraction

tion of the detached portion of bone does not take place in the manner stated by most surgical writers. Some very judicious directions are given by the author, respecting the posture of the arm that is most suitable for the cure of this injury. — A second paper treats of injuries in the vicinity of the shoulder-joint, including fractures and dislocations of the clavicle; and the author has here described a very ingenious combination of bandages, well adapted for the purpose of preserving the parts in a state favorable for recovery. — The next paper is a reprint of one already published in the *Philosophical Transactions*, containing the details of a very interesting case, in which Mr. E. succeeded in re-establishing a canal in the place of a portion of the urethra that had been destroyed. We have already made a report of it, when giving an account of those *Transactions*; and it affords a legitimate example of the triumphs of modern surgery, while it exhibits very striking evidence of the ingenuity and perseverance of Mr. Earle. — The last paper is dedicated to the consideration of the mechanism of the spine, more especially in birds; and it contains a very luminous explanation of the admirable provision of nature, for combining great strength with extensive range of motion. The author has shewn that, where the motion is most extensive, the spinal canal is of a very large size in proportion to the diameter of the cord which it contains; and thus the various and sudden flexions of the part can be performed without risk of injury to the medullary contents.

We cannot take leave of Mr. Earle without offering him our thanks for the satisfaction and instruction which his work has afforded us: nor without expressing our opinion that the paper on fracture of the thigh-bone is one of the ablest controversial productions which English surgery has lately produced.

ART. VII. *Venice under the Yoke of France and of Austria*: with Memoirs of the Courts, Governments, and People of Italy; presenting a faithful Picture of her present Condition, and including original Anecdotes of the Buonaparte Family. By a Lady of Rank. Written during a Twenty Years' Residence in that interesting Country; and now published for the Information of Englishmen in general, and of Travellers in particular. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1*l.* 1*s.* Boards. Whittakers. 1824.

THIS 'Lady of Rank' deprecates any severity of criticism as to her style; and, having been habituated to speak in a foreign tongue for twenty years, she might fairly claim indulgence for the occasional introduction of an exotic idiom.

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After such an appeal, too, it would be ungenerous to notice certain instances of metaphorical confusion, which, like false jewels, sparkle and deceive. Her apology, however, is in many respects unnecessary; for she could never say with Norfolk, on going into banishment,

“ The language I have learn’d these forty years,
My native English, now I must forego:
And now my tongue’s use is to me no more
Than an unstringed viol or a harp;”

she has *not* forgotten her “ native English;” and in one particular style, the style vituperative, she remarkably excels. She exhibits the greatest fluency of invective in weeping over the ‘vandalic mutilations’ of the ‘Corsican,’ the ‘Gallic tyger,’ the ‘mountebank upstart,’ the ‘murderer of Pichegru,’ of D’Enghien, of Captain Wright, of Count Augustin d’Verita, and others at Verona.* It must be particularly gratifying, however, to all lovers of retributive justice to learn that Bonaparte’s vandalic mutilations of the public edifices at Venice, Milan, and other places, have been ‘repaid to his manes;’ and that ‘not a whit more of his *marmorean-lig-nean-metallic* constructions, bearing his name, and titles, and personal emblems, are at this moment to be seen in any corner of his once boundless empire, than if “*Napoleon le Grand*” had never existed. *Sic transit gloria mundi!* Had this ‘Lady of Rank’ forgotten any of her English, she might compensate for the loss by having acquired something of Latin in exchange; by which she is enabled to exhibit specimens of marmorean, lignean, and metallic workmanship in the construction of her sentences, much prettier than rough *granitic* English alone.*

Nevertheless, the ‘Corsican upstart,’ ‘Pacha Buonaparte,’ the ‘Freebooter,’ cold-blooded and remorseless murderer as he was, did in some degree redeem himself in the eyes of this fair lady, for his vandalic mutilations of pictorial and graven images, ahenean statues, petrific columns, and marmorean edifices, the work of man’s hands, by frowning on certain other mutilations inflicted on man himself for the improvement of his vocal organs. We could scarcely have expected to see this subject introduced by a lady, and still less to find it so plainly and learnedly discussed as it is in more places than one. While, indeed, she has evidently retained her native tongue, she has certainly acquired a freedom from

* A little more attention to correctness in these quotations might have been useful. See, for instance, vol. ii. p. 275.

the restraints of feminine delicacy which we are happy to think is *not* native to an Englishwoman; and we must confess that we have perused these volumes with frequent interruptions of surprize at the indecencies of idea, and the vulgarities of phrase, which they so abundantly present to us. At the close of our article, perhaps, we shall specify a few of these characteristics: but in the mean time our readers will doubtless be inquiring who this 'Lady of Rank' can be. We cannot inform them exactly of her hereditary appellation and family: but it appears from several passages, and especially from vol. i. pp. 313. 337. 340. and 353., that she is the widow of the Venetian Marquis Antonio Govion Broglio Solari, and calls herself the Marchioness Catherine Hyde Solari.

If, however, the author pours forth a torrent of vituperative eloquence on the head of 'the Arch-drover of Italy,' the 'Imperial Hoaxer,' the worshippers of the Holy Alliance will be shocked and horror-struck to find that the deities of their adoration are not more reverentially treated; the foam and spray of the cataract reach every one of them; and they likewise are drenched to the very skin. Nay, England herself escapes not; and well does she deserve punishment, for her share in the transference of the Venetians and Genoese to the remorseless yoke of Austria, — to Sardinian planters and Piedmontese rice-growers. We should be very glad to see Venice and Genoa restored to their former independence, and Naples make an effort to break asunder her galling and ignominious chains, more worthy of the Roman name than that which she ventured a few years since: to behold the Spaniards throw off the yoke of *France*, aye, and of Ferdinand too; and to view the Greeks in undisturbed possession of their own classic soil, free, prosperous, and happy. All these things we should be delighted to contemplate, and none of them do we yet despair of seeing accomplished. We are not quite so enthusiastic, however, as the lady before us; who makes an animated appeal to England, imploring that she will lend her powerful arm to restore the long-forgotten balance of power in Europe to its antient equilibrium; that, compromised as England is in the natural degradation that must ensue from the continuance of the present system, she yet will not continue quiescent; and that her philanthropists will no longer confine themselves to the emancipation of the Blacks, but lend their ready assistance in redeeming five-and-twenty millions of white Christian slaves, — Greeks and Italians, — now groaning beneath the yoke of foreign oppression.

Notwithstanding the objections which we have mentioned, these volumes contain a variety of instructive and amusing deline-

delineations of character and manners. While many topics of a more agreeable and interesting nature are before us, we feel no disposition to enter on the dry and thread-bare subjects of the balance of power or the balance of trade; to prattle about the principles of political economy, the Berlin Decrees, and the Orders in Council; or to inquire into the merits of the Code Napoleon, commercial, military, and judicial. These subjects are not passed over unheeded, however, by the Marchioness, who touches every topic within the range of art and science; walks unharmed over thorns and briars, which expand their blossoms to do her homage; and moves over the crisped and rugged path of politics and philosophy, like Lavinia walking in a frosty morning:—

“ Lavinia, glorious as May,
I’ the non-age of a winter’s day, &c.

* * * * *

Every hoary-headed twig
Drops its snowy perriwig,
And each bough its icy beard.”

From the opportunities which her rank afforded for mixing in the first societies of Italy, and observing the nobility and gentry in their public and in their private capacity, in their court-etiquette and in their domestic circles;—from having (as she says) ‘summered them and wintered them;’—she cannot fail to have become acquainted with the general character of the people of Italy, their local habits, their customs, feelings, and propensities. The first volume treats of Venice; and the second takes us to Naples, Rome, Tuscany, Parma and Modena, Milan, Padua, &c.

The modern inhabitants of Venice, once the proudest and most aristocratic of republics, are now eating the bitter bread of the conquered, and crouching ignominiously at the feet of a despot. Nothing can be more galling than the manner in which judicial proceedings are now conducted. A president of the court has eight magistrates under his direction, to whose decision he distributes the different cases which are sent up to him: these magistrates act in the treble capacity of judge, advocate, and juror; and yet many of them are Germans, Hungarians, or Bohemians, who have been sent into the Venetian states ignorant even of the language, as well as of the manners and customs of the people. There is, indeed, a court of appeal: but this latter court never disturbs the decision of the other, unless some very *solid and weighty* arguments are alleged. Taxes are farmed out to middlemen; and every imaginable and almost unimaginable severity

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is adopted for the satisfaction of their rapacity. The government pays its civil and military servants in a very debased currency, but refuses to take more than one-third of its taxes in this valueless coin, demanding gold for the other two. This is not, however, as the fair author imagines, the first instance of a government thus depreciating its credit, for Frederick the Great did the same, as we noticed in our account of "*Les Conseils du Trone*." (See Appendix to vol. ci. and vol. cii.)

' The men are above the middle stature, rather inclined to be tall, and remarkably well made. They have good clear complexions, fine expressive countenances, with an elegant and easy deportment. So remarkably constant are they in their attachments, that it is no uncommon thing to hear of friendships, between the sexes, of fifty and sixty years' standing. A Venetian rarely abandons the object of his primitive affection, except for ill-treatment or infidelity; and, even in those instances, he never fails to lend her his assistance, should she happen to stand in need of it.

' The females, who, generally speaking, are handsome, have very fine figures, with beautifully clear skins, expressive features, and eyes that penetrate the inmost recesses of the soul. They are interestingly delicate in their external manners and in their language; the Venetian being, of all the dialects of Italy, the most agreeable. In the mouth of a genteel *Donna Veniziana*, it adds to the native grace of her carriage, and never fails to charm and delight the ear of a stranger; especially when it happens to be placed in contrast with the vulgar Lombardian jargon. They are remarkably attentive to foreigners; though they rarely form a tender attachment for them. When, however, such an attachment does take place, it is usually most passionate and sincere.

' The societies at Venice, whether at private houses or at the public casinos, are generally enlivened with the smiling eyes, and gentle and fascinating looks, of the fair sex, and are conducted with an elegance and an ease superior to most other female societies; and without any of that discordant rivalship of prerogatives, too often to be met with elsewhere. The casinos are conducted much in the same manner as the subscription-houses in London; where the members are at liberty to do as they please; with this especial difference, that the ladies only are subscribers, the gentlemen being honorary members. Strangers of respectability, of both sexes, are readily admitted, and meet with a polite and affable reception. The company are entertained with a concert, and treated with refreshments. Cards are introduced at the wish of any of the party; and other amusements, except those of hazard. These casinos are furnished in the most costly and elegant style, and are brilliantly lighted up with the beautiful wax candles for which Venice is so justly celebrated.

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'The regularity, the order, and the magnificence which prevail at these princely casinos, at once discover the ladies of Venice to be a superior race of beings to their neighbours of the Terra Firma. In their conversation they are lively and unaffected without levity, and communicative and affable without coquetry.

'The uncommon share of freedom which these ladies enjoy induces foreigners who have but a superficial knowledge of them to form an opinion of them very different from that which they really deserve. My observations, of course, apply solely to good society. The mixed classes of every country have their *chiaro scuro*. The Venetian ladies are extremely engaging in their manners; and as to their dress, it may be called becoming rather than fashionable, and sets off their fine figures to the greatest advantage. It is not unusual for them to be married to men whom they have never before seen, except through the grate of the convent in which they have been educated, and which they only quit to enter into the gay world, through the temple of Hymen, — where Cupid rarely presides, beyond the honey-moon! And to this very liberty, which they enjoy the moment they are married, is it to be ascribed, that they are usually not so capricious as the Italians of the south, who are more rigorously subjected to antiquated external formalities.'

The people of our own country were once rebuked by a deceased statesman for their *ignorant impatience of taxation*; and there *was* a time, not to say there *is*, when a tax-gatherer here would ferret out a guinea with as keen a scent as a police-officer traces a thief. Our English minister, however, was a mere tyro in taxing: his measures were mere blundering in comparison with the accomplished skill of his Imperial Majesty of Austria. From the exclusive preference given to Germans in all public offices, and from the general system of misrule which prevails throughout the Venetian states, his Imperial and Paternal Majesty has innumerable grievances laid before him at Vienna for redress. These he most graciously encourages; for, be it known, every petition or memorial so presented must be drawn up on *stamped paper*; and then, after due deliberation, it is sent back to the poor expectant *by the post*! The discovery of such a source of revenue is like the discovery of a new chalybeate spring; hopeful to the tottering invalids who fancy that they renovate their strength by drinking the bursting bubbles, and of unbounded value to the proprietors of the soil, who invite the hypochondriac and the sick to taste their healing waters. The Venetians are not suffered to leave the city for a day without a passport, and this passport is another prolific source of revenue. — Stern necessity having driven several of the most distinguished patrician families of Venice to pull down some of the monuments of antient grandeur, the Emperor, to evince his patronage

age and taste for the fine arts, issued a decree prohibiting the proprietors to deface or mutilate any of their palaces. Now, the public taxes at Venice are collected every two months; and, as these shattered fragments of nobility, — how emblematic of their forlorn condition are the broken columns and prostrate capitals of high-wrought marble which are ever present to their eyes! — as these shattered nobility have been disabled from paying up their assessments, the Emperor has not hesitated to confiscate for arrears their favored palaces, the objects of his protection, and disposes of them to Jews who convert them into store-houses, after having taken down the ornaments and sold the materials. Under the hammer of a government-auctioneer, a splendid palace is often knocked down for a song!

It is well known that, at the peace of Campo Formio, a secret article was introduced for the sale of the Venetians by France to Austria; and that Bonaparte was never troubled with any qualms of conscience about the invasion of a country on which he set his mind. The violation of the Venetian territory was arranged at a *déjeûné* given by him on the occasion of the marriage of his sister Paulina to General Le Clerc; and Salicetti — an intriguer better known in England since the publication of Mr. O'Meara's book than before — was directed to prepare some hundreds of peasants' dresses, which were distributed among the officers and privates of the French army. Under this disguise, the rich provinces of Bergamo and Brescia were invaded and detached from the Venetian government; who were led to believe that the rising was a voluntary movement on the part of the people to get rid of their own government, and unite themselves with that of the Cisalpine. Be that as it may, Venice fell, and was soon transferred to Austria. With all the present author's hatred of the French, among whom she was brought up, of Bonaparte, of Josephine, and 'her *precious train of democratical troopers*,' to use the elegant expression of the Marchesa, she has the candour to acknowledge that the French behaved like perfect gentlemen in comparison with the Germans. The former were rapacious of money, but they also spent it freely; while the latter are the most niggardly race of mortals on the earth.

'That I am no advocate for the Napoleon system of legislation, I think I have pretty plainly shown. I have many weighty reasons for regretting, that it should ever have predominated in Italy, and especially in the once flourishing and happy Venetian states. Truth, however, compels me at the same time to declare, and it would indeed be the height of folly to deny the fact, that the French sway

sway was infinitely more congenial, and more generally advantageous, to all classes of the people of Italy, than the system of government which the Austrians have organized for them.

‘ It was Buonaparte’s constant practice to employ thousands of the labouring poor on the high roads ; not as they now are engaged, from necessity, in waylaying and in plundering the unoffending traveller, but in keeping those roads in good order, and in repairing the fortifications and the public buildings. The revenues of the Venetian states were principally spent by the French amongst the inhabitants, in affording encouragement to the fine arts, in erecting schools for the education of youth, in maintaining academies for men of science and literature, and in giving salaries to persons of the bar, for devising means for the more prompt administration of justice.

‘ Napoleon, too, whenever an author had the good fortune to meet with a Mæcenas ready to present a work to him, and to say a good word in behalf of the writer, would, as I have before observed, always take a hundred or two copies, and never fewer than fifty, on his own private account ; besides making his staff subscribe for another hundred, by way of giving encouragement to literature. With the present Emperor of Austria, however, and with some of his brothers, — who certainly understand *cruscamente*, the meaning of the verb *avere*, but not the meaning of the verb *dare*, — the only return they make to a poor author on such an occasion, is a letter of thanks, — that is to say, *soddisfanno tutti gli Artisti, à modo lord, con grazie*, — which said *grazie*, as all the world knows, is very unsubstantial diet !’

The fate of the Venetians is indeed very hard. According to the Marchioness Solari’s account of the old republic, contrasted with the present German despotism, they must have stopped, as it were, in *limbo*, while resting under the French government, in their headlong fall from the highest heaven to the deepest vaults of the infernal regions. Her description of the old republic, of the dignity of the senators, and of the unalloyed felicity of the people, might pass for the history of some pure unembodied spirits, the inhabitants of another sphere : but the Venetians were ever celebrated for the excellence of their *coloring* ; and the Marchesa has not lived twenty years among them without learning the art.

‘ As a nation, the Venetians are perhaps the most polite in the world ; and that from circumstances peculiar to their city : for as there are no carriages nor horses, all ranks and classes of society are compelled to go a good deal on foot, and consequently come much in contact with each other ; so that the *morgue aristocratique*, which one sees so much of at Paris or London, never annoys the pedestrian. Even the gondolas, or marine palanquins, were so plain, that the people neither felt themselves offended or humiliated at the sight of them ; for the nobles, in the time
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of the Republic, were restrained by law from extravagance in their equipages.

' Venice might formerly be called the city of peace. Every thing in it was quiet and tranquil. The suavity of the Venetian manners resembled the softness of their climate. With singular propriety, the Doge was saluted by the title of "the most *serene* prince." The arts of peace flourished amongst them with amazing splendour. The mine was of a richness scarcely conceivable. In the single branch of painting, a vein was discovered, which, in the course of time, found its way into every palace and great mansion throughout Europe.' —

' It is not at all surprising, that so few good paintings are to be met with in countries, the potentates of which are enveloped in clouds of ignorance, and surrounded by swarms of fulsome adulators. It should ever be borne in mind by them, that "flattery is evanescent, but works remain : " — an aphorism, this, which at Venice I once heard levelled at Canova ; whose performances, by the bye, bear few indications of real genius ; especially such of them as are of the robust and vigorous kind. Greatly influenced and impressed by the innumerable elegant fragments of antique art, which were constantly before his eyes, like many others (indeed, so many, that excepting Michael Angelo, and one or two besides, there is not an exception,) he has pillaged from them in such an unmerciful spirit of plagiarism, such parts of his statues as are not copies are feeble, and glaringly inferior to the forms which he has borrowed from antiques, and regulated by their proportions. Of the truth of my assertion, any one will be convinced, by looking at his Venus and Adonis. The greatest care, therefore, should be taken, lest the fine models at Rome should impair, rather than brace and strengthen and invigorate the capacity of the young artist. The antique absolutely bewilders and stupifies many a tyro ; who, but for the imposing rhapsodies of a set of blustering bullies in matters of taste, would have been a credit to himself and an honour to his country. Too much allured by the cold marble, they are apt to forsake the carnation of real life, and to fancy nothing strictly correct, that is not hard and marmorean. With all their occasional bad drawing, the Venetians are infinitely superior to the vile herd of artists of whom I have been speaking.'

We have not introduced this passage for the sake of the criticism on Canova, whose works are the most highly prized by the best judges, but for the remark which we hold to be just, that, without great care, an intense study of the finest models may impair rather than invigorate the capacity of the young artist. If these models become, as they sometimes do, the objects of his adoration, he prostrates before them his own judgment and his own genius.

In 1796, when Bonaparte was appointing his municipal officers for Venice, the Marquis Antonio Govion Broglio Solari was nominated as one : but, being inimical to French

filiation, he struck out his name, left Venice, and retired to his country-seat, from fear of being compelled to accept the office. Buonaparte, however, became King of Italy; and when he saw the Marquis, for the first time in his life, twelve years afterward, in 1808, he instantly recollected the name, and exclaimed;

“ Ah, Marquis! I remember; you declined being a member of the municipality!” Solari had nearly forgotten the circumstance, when Buonaparte repeated, “ Yes, yes! you scratched out your name, though Cornaro, Dolfin, Pisani, and many other of your friends and acquaintances, were among the number. Well, well, they are all dead, and you are alive. I suppose you had your reasons for refusing; and I have mine for now appointing you to serve the office of prefect.” It is a curious fact, that, in these matters, the memory of Buonaparte scarcely ever failed him.

‘ The Marquis di Solari was appointed to the government in the mountains, called the Sette Comuni, exclusively inhabited by the descendants of the Cimbri, who, being beaten and dispersed near Verona, by Marius, a hundred and one years before the Christian æra, betook themselves to those mountains; and, up to this very day, have preserved their ancient customs, as well as their ancient language, which a good deal resembles the Danish and the Low Dutch. The women and children, who have never quitted their Alpine situation, neither speak nor understand the Italian; though the spot in which they live is only at the distance of about thirty miles from Vicenza.

‘ The men, who, during the winter-months, are obliged to descend into the vallies, for the purpose of procuring food for their cattle, (every thing on the earth being frozen up for eight months out of the twelve,) speak the Venetian dialect. Together, they form a population of from six-and-thirty to forty thousand souls. For the most part, they are shepherds. The country they inhabit produces scarcely any thing in the mountainous parts, excepting a little barley and fire-wood. The small portion of the country which is flat is planted with tobacco, which, since the Revolution, they are obliged to sell to the government; whereas, before that period, the Venetian republic benevolently exempted these poor mountaineers from all kinds of public taxes, and, on account of the sterility of their soil, granted them, into the bargain, several very important privileges; deeming them sufficiently taxed already by nature, in the deprivation of the common necessities of life; such as bread and every kind of vegetables; which articles they are obliged to fetch, either from Bassano, at a distance of five-and-twenty miles, or from Vicenza; as they are more than two thousand feet above the level of the sea.

‘ Indeed, the spot is considered the very Siberia of Italy. The snow begins to fall in September; and often continues on the ground until the month of May, and sometimes as late as June.

June: To enable them to go to church or walk about, the shoes of the people are prepared in the same manner as those of the horses are, which have to travel over ice. In their manners and customs, they somewhat resemble the feudal slaves in Poland and Russia. In their houses, as well as in their persons, they are remarkably slovenly and dirty.

There is only one house built of brick in the whole district; and that house is situated in Asiago, the capital of the Sette Comuni. The rest are composed of mud and stones, and are thatched with rushes or straw. The cold is sometimes so intense, that the oil is laid in large lumps before the fire to dissolve, before it can be used. The wines and spirits are sure to be genuine; for the watery particles freeze, and the pure spirit only remains. The inhabitants are obliged to cook all their provisions with snow-water. A small spring runs through the town of Asiago, but the people bathe, water their cattle, and empty their cloacas into it; which makes it useless for any particular purpose; so that the very salutary operation of washing can only be performed during the three or four summer-months.

The inhabitants of Asiago, though tolerably at their ease, live almost in a state of nature, are unacquainted with the use of table-linen, and know no gradations of rank in their little community. 'There never was an instance of an ox being killed in the whole Sette Comuni:' their only animal food being sheep, calves, and goats. Their habitations are of mud, covered with rushes; in which men, women, and children are all huddled together: the fire-place being in the middle of the apartment, which has no chimney for the escape of smoke. In the winter-nights, it is not uncommon for them to be visited by hungry troops of foxes; whose approach, however, is timely announced by the howling of the dogs, which scent them afar off. The country has the appearance of Swiss mountains, and the people, as we are told above, resemble the feudal slaves of Russia. They have strong natural powers of mind, are cunning and revengeful, retain the broad-featured countenance of the northern nations, and have high cheek-bones, small eyes, and flattish noses. The Marchioness lived with her husband in this 'Siberia of Italy' for the space of fourteen months; during which time the Marquis endeavored to introduce some little manufactures in the Sette Comuni, and endeared himself to these poor creatures by a thousand acts of attention and kindness.

Though an Italian by marriage, and seemingly in manners, the fair author really has no blood flowing in her veins that is not truly British. It appears that she was once 'sent for to Milan, when it was proposed to her that she should accompany some agents of the French government to England;

there to give immense commissions for goods in all the manufacturing towns of England, Scotland, and Ireland." This took place, it should be observed, during the operation of Napoleon's Berlin and Milan Decrees, and when she had already interested herself very humanely in behalf of those who suffered from them. A considerable sum was to be advanced: but the bulk of the articles, when finished, were to be left on the hands of the manufacturers; and this measure, on a large scale, backed by the assistance of some persons well bribed for the purpose, it was supposed would produce such a general commotion among the commercial and manufacturing classes, as would compel the English government to make peace. The conversation, which took place on this proposal, is extremely spirited: the lady scorned to betray the interests of her country, and expressed her indignation at the base proposal in no compromising terms. On her return, she instantly made her husband acquainted with the whole transaction.

' A few days after, coming from a ball which was given at the theatre La Fenice, an officer called at our casino; and being informed where we were gone, he waited our return. Scarcely had we reached home, when the said officer knocked at our door. Upon which the servant said, "O, that's the man, I suppose, who has been asking, three or four times this evening, for my mistress." It was now between three and four o'clock in the morning. My husband, seizing his pistols, ran to the window, and asked who was there? Upon which, the officer cried out, "You must open the door, for I want to come in." My husband was on the point of firing at the fellow, but I prevailed on him to hear what he had to say in defence of his extraordinary conduct. On entering the casino, and seeing my husband, whom he had formerly served in a menial capacity, when he was employed under the republic, the man was so astounded, that for some minutes he could not utter a syllable. At length, he stammered out, "I am ordered to keep a sharp look-out upon that lady."

"Well! there she is," said my husband, taking me by the hand, "look at her; but I am now going to bed with her, and if you dare to offer the smallest violence, or attempt to come into the room, I will that moment blow your brains out. Shew me your authority."

"I have none," said the officer, "but that which I have just mentioned;" for he was only one of the runners of the police.

' On the next morning I was allowed to go to my country residence at Treviso, accompanied by this man, who followed my footsteps even to church. For the first two days, I only walked about my garden, and on the third and fourth, upon the high road; and, on my return, I always gave directions to have him well taken care of previous to my taking my own breakfast. On the fifth day, he left me to take my walk by myself; when, without-

out taking any thing with me but what I had on, I set off in a post-chaise for Venice, and, scraping together a few hundred dollars, I hired a fishing-boat, as I knew that the British squadron was then blockading the ports in the Adriatic; but, contrary winds detained me in this open boat for more than three days; when I came up with Admiral Freemantle's ship, which took me to Malta, from which place I wrote to my husband, and then set off for Sicily, where I continued until the peace.

‘Whether this business was planned at Paris, at Milan, or at Venice, I am unable to say; but it took place while Napoleon was in Russia. A criminal process was commenced against my husband; and Heaven only knows what would have been the consequence, had not a change in the government happily taken place!’

The character of the Neapolitans is totally contrasted with that of the Venetians. Thieves and vagabonds, foul and filthy, the common people live with their families like beasts in a stable; and domestics of both sexes sleep and cook their provisions on the stair-cases of the palaces of their masters. They are slothful and superstitious, at least a couple of centuries behind the rest of Italy in point of civilization, and may be considered as twin-brothers with the Spaniards. Talk of driving the Turks out of Europe to stop the plague! ‘it would be infinitely better to send off the two above-mentioned infected races in their stead, for no plague can by any possibility be more fatal to the progress of civilization, than the dissemination of their deadly infection.’ The Marchioness is very unfavorable in her opinion of the ‘universal Spanish nation:’ considering them as of all people on earth the most lazy, *lousy*, savage, and implacable, the very outcasts of the human manufactory. The Neapolitans are their twin-brothers in every thing base: but they are represented as being more attached to their country than any other Italians, and not less to their masters or employers. The miserable failure of the Neapolitans, in their constitutional struggles, is not attributed to cowardice so much as to credulity, to the stupid confidence which they reposed in Ferdinand, and to their suffering him to absent himself from the seat of government and “hold up his hand” before the sovereigns of the Holy Alliance. Ferdinand speaks the corrupt Neapolitan dialect in use among the common people, and in his manners, habits, and conversation, is a complete Lazzarone. The Marchioness has herself seen him dressed in the appropriate costume of a fishmonger, with a white night-cap on his head and an apron round his waist, selling fish to the best bidder in the market-place. He would sometimes walk on the beach at the Chiaja, toss some *sans-culottes* Lazzarone into the

water, then jump in after him, and bring the dripping wretch safely on shore; and it was this freak of his Neapolitan majesty which gave birth to the immortal Canova's two figures of Hercules flinging Lichon into the sea, now in the possession of the banker Turloni, at Rome. The Queen of Naples is a personage of an extremely different character; and on no occasion has she ever forgotten that she is the daughter of the great Maria Theresa. The Marchesa dates her first introduction to her Sicilian Majesty in the year 1791, when she was intrusted with letters to her from her sister, the ill-fated Marie Antoinette; and she has seen a great deal of her, sometimes in emergencies of no ordinary nature. Many anecdotes are introduced of her high and dignified spirit, particularly with regard to the conduct of Lord William Bentinck; or, more properly speaking, of those under whose instructions he was acting, which excite great interest in her favor.

As Italy is the garden of Europe, Tuscany is the garden of Italy; and the Tuscans are infinitely beyond the rest of the *terra firma* in civilization. In their nature, they partake much of the mildness and serenity of their own delicious climate: their manners are elegant; and their accomplishments are various. The fascination of the females is resistless: but it seems that, since the period of the French Revolution, they have lost some of that simplicity of character and address which constituted their brightest charm.

‘ The prolificacy of the Tuscan soil, if I may be allowed the expression, is as much occasioned by the judicious manner in which it is cultivated, as it is by the mildness of its climate, and the purity of its sky. Not an inch of earth is left idle. Vines, olives, all kinds of fruits, are planted one above the other, in geometrical symmetry; rising progressively, until they lose themselves in the clouds, and forming, in the vintage season, one of the most enchanting scenes that nature can possibly produce.

‘ The common people, as well as the peasantry, speak the language, as settled by the celebrated academy Della Crusca established at Florence, in its greatest purity; and even the beggars in the streets, who ask you for a crazia, which is almost the smallest coin of the country, really do it *con grazia*, and will often address themselves to a stranger in the classical idiom of their poets, and tell you, that such and such a nobleman has regaled them, on their birth-day, with “an omelet of four eggs,” — which, indeed, is by no means a common event; for the Tuscans are neither rich nor generous, and do not reckon their income by pounds, shillings, and pence, but by the number of flasks of oil or of wine which is made on their estates.

‘ Nay, many of the nobility, both at Florence and at their country residences, will sell you, at their own houses, a single bottle of either.

either. At the side of the door of their palaces there is usually a little hatch, just big enough to admit a bottle, and a bell; on the ringing of which, and paying the price, a servant brings the wine or the oil to the purchaser.

‘The Tuscans never impose on foreigners, in the manner practised at Naples and at Genoa. The shopkeepers are remarkably honest, as well as civil; and particularly so to the English. At Florence, there are three or four very good theatres; but they are open for performances only at a certain season of the year. A good opera is rarely to be met with at Florence, except when the principal singers happen not to be engaged elsewhere; as the people are really too poor to pay them sufficiently high salaries; except during the bathing season at Pisa and Lucca, at which towns there is a great influx of strangers; and even then the natives are admitted at half-price.’

The old maxim, *divide et impera*, has been adopted for the subjugation of Italy: but there is yet a spirit abroad which gives some hopes that the *people* of Italy may lay aside their reciprocal jealousies, feeling that to these they are mainly indebted for their former miscarriages. The fire lies dormant, says the Marchioness, who is perfectly conversant with the feelings and character of those whom she describes with such felicity and spirit: — the fire lies dormant, but, like its neighbouring volcanoes, it is not extinguished; and sooner or later it will burst forth, bury in its ashes the enemies of freedom, and lay the foundation of a new Pompeii and a new Herculaneum.

We might easily occupy a larger space with amusing quotations from these volumes: but we find our table spread with the petitions of other supplicants for admission, to whom we are in duty bound to pay attention. The Marchioness Solari has collected a great many anecdotes, not only of Bonaparte himself*, but of each and all his relatives; and for the truth of several she gives authority not to be questioned: but it may be doubted, perhaps, whether they are all of equal credibility, for the family of *on dit* is not remarkable for veracity. As, however, we have instanced some of the pretty epithets which the Marchioness has bestowed on the Ex-emperor, we will quote a part of her general remarks on his character as a soldier and a ruler, which are by no means discreditable to her judgment.

‘Now that Napoleon is gone the way of all flesh, it is the fashion to eulogize and puff him off as a great man; and, if the attempted palliation were not intended as an apology for the adop-

* Who is said to have had *hysterical* fits. (Vol. ii. p. 210.) We request the fair writer to consult a dictionary, — and a lexicon.

tion of his despotic measures, I should not be unwilling, to a certain extent, to join in the encomium.

‘As a General, in the hour of battle, he shewed himself a god of war, — a very Mars. Possessing a consummate knowledge of the military science, he was, for quickness of intellect and promptitude of execution, altogether without a parallel.

‘But, the thing which stamped him a General of the first rate was his always commencing the battle, and striking the first blow. For while he thereby infused the confidence of hope into his own troops, he generated the chill of despair into those of his adversary. He would not be dictated to by any mortal breathing. Accustomed, by superior skill, to baffle the plans of his adversary, he ever took the lead, and preserved it to the last; thereby striking terror and dismay into the bosoms of the stoutest. The carrying on of a defensive warfare he left for those feeble souls, who were either paralyzed through fear, cramped and fettered by responsibility, or ignorant of human nature.’ —

‘Though by no means convinced of their originality, I am willing to allow that some of Napoleon’s projects were vast in the extreme, and that they were arranged with a profound knowledge of universal society. Egyptians and Italians, Jews and Gentiles, he alike took a part in their concerns. Germans and Spaniards, Turks and Russians, were chess-men, which he managed and moved to and fro like another Philidor, rendering them subsidiary to his renown, and tributary to his army; which was composed of a portion of each. France he overawed by strangers, and all other nations by foreign bayonets. Lest effeminacy should creep in amongst them, his soldiers were never suffered to remain long in one place, but were marched to fresh quarters every three or four months: thus, flinging “resty sloth” to the dogs; and, by keeping up their natural buoyancy and activity of spirits, preparing them for that strict discipline so essentially necessary in the hour of battle.

‘Such men, in fact, were the veterans who perished in the snows of Russia. So accustomed were they implicitly to execute the orders of their General, that none of the troops belonging to the other sovereigns of Europe had been able to cope with them. Neither ought England to repine at this; since, in the plenitude of Napoleon’s power, she achieved every thing that circumstances would admit of. Truly did that man exclaim, that to himself only was he indebted for his overthrow. Aye, and for all the disasters of the Russian expedition! Had he panted less for an individuality of authority: had he, both as a monarch and a captain, sought for exclusive supremacy with an ardour a little more tempered: had he been willing to share but a small portion of his laurels with his companions in arms, — Massena, Augereau, and the other mighty champions of democracy and of the French Republic, who had sprung up simultaneously with himself: had not the fumes of personal ambition, the venom of adulation, and the blandishments of vice, warped his talents and intoxicated his understanding: had not all these things taken place, a forest of heroes

heroes would, in defiance of the hyperborean blast, have grown up around his throne, and enabled him to laugh to scorn the combined efforts of his enemies.

‘Buonaparte was more dreaded by the generality of mankind than he was esteemed. This was abundantly shewn in the critical moment of his authority. Had he practised less cunning and low shuffle, he would have shewn himself a better politician. “Aye, to be sure,” have exclaimed some, “the unfortunate always commit errors!” Although the sentiment is sarcastically thrown out, it is nevertheless a just one. And, of all the crowned heads, Buonaparte was assuredly the most culpable: since, the man who had not been brought up from his youth in the trammels of royalty; who had had far better opportunities than the offspring of kings, of studying human nature, and of thereby avoiding its prejudices, ought, above all things, not to have forfeited the regard of the people, by the resumption of those most tyrannical and oppressive ordinances, to overturn which the French Revolution had exploded.’

Although we have read many books of travels through the different states of Italy, — classical tourists, botanical tourists, political tourists, and dilettanti tourists, — we have seldom met with any account which has given us such an insight as this publication affords into the manners and character of the several people who inhabit the different states of this delicious region; — for the people are extremely different from each other. The Marchioness is almost as *unreserved* in the expression of her feelings as the noted Madame de Bavière, mother of the Regent Duke of Orleans: but, though she has been so long accustomed to the unrestricted freedom of continental manners and expression, she might have remembered that the ladies and even the public of England may deem that a breach of delicacy which would pass unregarded or uncensured in the society of Italy. We have already remarked on these blemishes; and we will not conclude without fulfilling our promise to specify some of them. Besides the abuse, *passim*, of Bonaparte, ‘that wretched *imbécile*, Manin,’ Doge of Venice, is called a ‘*white-livered cowardly Doge*.’ (Vol. i. p. 189.) Had the *e* in *Doge* been omitted, the phrase would have been more *truly English*, of a certain cast. — Vol. ii. p. 209, 210., the late Mrs. Billington is said to have been a woman ‘as common as a country whipping-post.’ Ib. p. 52., the Lazzaroni of Naples are described as ‘nearly *in puris naturalibus*, and exposing the entire of their filthy members.’ In a variety of places, we have the vulgar phrases of *making the mare to go*, — ‘bread and onions, and *what not*,’ — ‘in confinement until such time as,’ — ‘resembled for all the world,’ &c. &c. Among the instances of delicacy

delicacy which we may venture to mention, (besides those respecting the *singing gentlemen* of Italy, to which we have already dared only to allude,) are the story of Chiaretta Contarini and the French officer, vol. i. p. 252, 253.; the anecdote of the Electress Leopoldina of Bavaria, vol. ii. p. 164.; that of the little King of Rome, *ib.* p. 263.; the statements about the licensed prostitutes of Venice, *ib.* p. 329. and vol. i. p. 52., *cum multis aliis.*

ART. VIII. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year 1823. Part II.*

[Article concluded from vol. ciii. p. 429.]

MEDICAL AND CHEMICAL PAPERS, &c.

ON Fluid Chlorine. By M. Faraday, Chemical Assistant at the Royal Institution. — Although chlorine, *i. e.* hydrate of chlorine, as usually procured, may be rendered solid at a low temperature, consisting of 27,7 chlorine and 72,3 water, or 1 of chlorine and 10 of water, yet pure chlorine cannot be made solid even at a temperature of -40° Fahrenheit. By exposure of the hydrate of chlorine to heat under pressure in a tube hermetically sealed, and at the temperature of 100° , this substance was decomposed, and afforded two fluid substances, the tube being filled with a yellow vapor. On being cooled, this vapor condensed into a yellow liquid; and, when the end of the tube containing this fluid was broken under a jar of water, there was an immediate production of chlorine gas. The yellow fluid thus obtained by pressure was not beyond what could readily be obtained by a condensing syringe of about four atmospheres, and it was considered to be pure chlorine in a liquid state.

A note is subjoined by Sir H. Davy on the condensation of muriatic acid gas into a liquid form. This was effected by adding sulphuric acid to muriate of ammonia in sealed tubes.

On the Motions of the Eye, in Illustration of the Uses of the Muscles and Nerves of the Orbit. By Charles Bell, Esq. — The writer's intention in this paper is to explain the reason of our having six nerves distributed to the eye, all crowded in the narrow space of the orbit: but, as Mr. Bell observes, 'the frame-work or apparatus' must be studied, as it is 'not less calculated to excite our wonder than the properties of the organ itself.' Accordingly, the first part of the paper is occupied in displaying the uses of the apparatus which is exterior

exterior to the eye-ball; and the second part is employed in shewing how the nerves minister to these offices.

With regard to the muscles and frame-work which are around the eye-ball, Mr. B. remarks;

‘ We must distinguish the motions of the eye according to their objects or uses, whether for the direct purpose of vision or for the preservation of the organ: that the eye undergoes a revolving motion not hitherto noticed: that it is subject to a state of rest and of activity; and that the different conditions of the retina are accompanied by appropriate conditions of the surrounding muscles: that these muscles are to be distinguished into two natural classes; and that in sleep, faintness, and insensibility, the eye-ball is given up to the one, and in watchfulness and the full exercise of the organ it is given up to the influence of the other class of muscles: and, finally, that the consideration of these natural conditions of the eye explains the changes as symptomatic of disease, or as expressive of passion.

‘ Two objects are attained through the motions of the eye-ball and eye-lids. First, the control and direction of the eye to objects. Secondly, the preservation of the organ itself, either by withdrawing the surface from injury, or by the removal of what is offensive to it. Without keeping this distinction before us, we shall not easily discover the uses of the parts. There is a motion of the eye-ball which from its rapidity has escaped observation. At the instant in which the eye-lids are closed, the eye-ball makes a movement which raises the cornea under the upper eye-lid.’—

‘ There is a provision for the preservation of the eye, in the manner in which the eye-lids close, which has not been noticed; while the upper eye-lid falls, the lower eye-lid is moved towards the nose. This is a part of that curious provision for collecting offensive particles towards the inner corner of the eye. If the edges of the eye-lids be marked with black spots, it will be seen that when the eye-lids are opened and closed, the spot on the upper eye-lid will descend and rise perpendicularly, while the spot on the lower eye-lid will play horizontally like a shuttle.

‘ To comprehend certain actions of the muscles of the eye, we must remember that the caruncle and membrane called *semilunaris*, seated in the inner corner of the eye, are for ridding the eye of extraneous matter, and are in fact for the same purpose with that apparatus which is more perfect and appropriate in beasts and birds.

‘ The third eye-lid in quadrupeds is a thin cartilage, the posterior part of which is attached to an elastic body, which is lodged in a division or depression of the orbit on the side towards the nose. When the eye is excited, the eye-ball is made to press on the elastic body, and force it out of its recess or socket; the consequence is the protrusion of the cartilaginous third eye-lid or *haw*, as it is termed in the horse. By this mechanism, the third eye-lid is made to sweep rapidly over the surface of the cornea, and by means of the glutinous fluid with which its surface is bedewed,

bedewed, it attaches and clears away offensive particles. The third eye-lid is more perfect in birds.'

In treating of the actions of the muscles of the eye, and their natural classifications, Mr. Bell thus proceeds:

'The muscles attached to the eye-ball are in two classes, the *recti* and *obliqui*. The *recti* muscles are four in number, and come from the bottom of the orbit, and run in a straight course forwards and outwards. They embrace the eye-ball, and are inserted at four cardinal points into it. The *obliqui* are two muscles, having a direction backwards and outwards. They embrace the eye-ball, one passing over it obliquely, the other under it obliquely. That the *recti* muscles perform the office of directing the axis of the eye, turning it round to every point in the sphere of vision, there are many proofs. In the first place, their origin, course, and insertion, accurately fit them for this office; and they are obviously equal to it, unassisted by other muscles. In the next place, from man down to the cuttle-fish, the voluntary motions of the eyes are the same; and the origin, course, and insertion of these muscles are similar, while the other muscles vary with the change of apparatus which is around the eye. The oblique muscles of the eye stand contrasted with the *recti* in every respect, in number, size, and direction: yet it is a received opinion that they antagonize the *recti*, and keep the eye suspended; but to this opinion there are many objections.'

The author concludes, from experiments, that the division of the oblique muscles does not in any degree affect the voluntary motions by which the eye is directed to objects.

With regard to the conditions of the eye in its state of rest, and its state of activity, it may be observed that when at rest, as in sleep, or even when the eye-lids are only shut, there being no sensation on the retina, the voluntary muscles resign their office, and the involuntary muscles draw the pupil under the upper eye-lid. This is the condition of the organ during perfect repose.

On the other hand, however, an inseparable connection subsists between the exercise of the sense of vision and the exercise of the voluntary muscles of the eye. The relation between the office of the retina and of the voluntary muscles may be illustrated by this experiment. Let the eyes be fixed on an illuminated object until the retina be fatigued, and in some measure exhausted by the image; then, if we close the eyes, the figure of the object will continue present to them; and nothing can change the place of this impression on the retina. If we consider how imperfect the sense of touch would be, and how little of what is actually known through the double office of muscles and nerves would be attained by the nerve of touch alone, we shall be prepared to give more

importance to the *recti* muscles of the eye in aid of the sense of vision, and to the offices performed by the frame around the eye-ball in aid of the instrument itself.

The uses of the oblique muscles of the eye have been misunderstood, and the distinction of the nerves have been neglected: hence the symptoms of disease, and the sources of expression in the eye, remain to be explained.

On the Condensation of several Gases into Liquids. By Mr. Faraday. — Sulphurous acid gas was produced by heating mercury with concentrated sulphuric acid in a bent tube hermetically sealed, and one end preserved cool by wet paper: but the gas, on passing into the cold end of the tube, was condensed into a liquid. In a nearly similar way, sulphuretted hydrogen was obtained in a liquid state from muriatic acid and sulphurate of iron.

In producing liquid carbonic acid by this mode, much stronger glass tubes were required, and many hazardous explosions took place. Hence the necessity of masks, goggles, &c., for the protection of the eyes. By inserting a gage in a tube in which fluid carbonic acid was produced, it was found that its vapor exerted a pressure of 36 atmospheres at a temperature of 32°. — Euchlorine was obtained, fluid, from the chlorate of potash and sulphuric acid in the bent tube acting on each other during 24 hours.

Nitrous oxide, procured from dry nitrate of ammonia and heat, afforded liquid nitrous oxide: but the process requires care, and many dangerous explosions occurred with even very strong tubes. This liquid is so volatile, that the warmth of the hand occasions it to become vapor: but it is easily again condensed by the cold of ice and salt. Its refractive power is much less than that of water. The pressure of its vapor was equal to 40 atmospheres at 45°.

Cyanogen was obtained from cyanuret of mercury by heat. The cyanogen appeared as a limpid colorless fluid.

Ammonia in a liquid state was produced by dry chloride of silver, put into dry ammoniacal gas; 100 grains condensing above 130 cubical inches of the gas. A portion of this compound, exposed to heat in the bent tube, afforded at the other extremity, cooled by water, liquid ammonia. Its refractive power surpassed that of water, or any of the other condensed gases.

Muriatic acid is obtained from pure muriate of ammonia and sulphuric acid, in a liquid colorless state. Its refractive power is less than that of water. The pressure of its vapor at the temperature of 50° is equal to about 40 atmospheres.

Chlorine,

Chlorine, in its fluid state, has a refractive power rather less than that of water. The pressure of its vapor at 60° is nearly that of four atmospheres.

Hydrogen, oxygen, fluo-boracic, fluo-silicic, and phosphuretted hydrogen gases, have not been obtained in the liquid state, although subjected to great pressure.

Mr. Faraday's chemical resources are well displayed in this paper.

On the Application of Liquids formed by the Condensation of Gases as Mechanical Agents. By Sir Humphry Davy, Bart. P. R. S. — The practical object of the condensation of different gaseous bodies by pressure was the hope of obtaining different vapors which, from the facility with which their elastic forces might be diminished or increased by small increments or decrements of temperature, would be applicable to the same purposes as steam. Mr. Faraday's experiments have shewn that not only muriatic acid but all the other gases which have weaker affinities, and which are absorbable by water to any extent, may be rendered fluid by similar means.

Sir Humphry observes that 'the elasticity of vapors in contact with the liquids from which they are produced under high pressures by high temperatures, such as those of alcohol and water, is known to increase in a much higher ratio than the arithmetical one of the temperature.' The ratio of elastic force dependent on pressure, he adds, is to be combined with that of the expansive force dependent on temperature; and the greater loss of radiant heat at high temperatures, the development of latent heat in compression, and the necessity for its re-absorption in expansion, must awaken some doubts as to the economical results obtained by employing the steam of water under very great pressures, and at very elevated temperatures. No such doubts, however, can arise in the use of liquids which require for their existence a compression equal to 30 or even 40 atmospheres; where slight elevations of temperature produce an immense elastic force; and where the principal question to be discussed is whether the effect of mechanical motion is to be most easily produced by an increase or a diminution of heat by artificial means.

'Sulphuretted hydrogen, which condenses readily at 3° Fahrenheit, under a pressure equal to that which balances the elastic force of an atmosphere compressed to $\frac{1}{14}$, had its elastic force increased so as to equal that of an atmosphere compressed to $\frac{1}{17}$ by an increase of 47° of temperature. Liquid muriatic acid at 3° exerted an elastic force equivalent to that of an atmosphere compressed to $\frac{1}{30}$; by an increase of 22° it gained an elastic force equivalent to that of an atmosphere compressed to $\frac{1}{25}$; and by a further

further addition of 26° , an elastic force equivalent to that of air compressed to $\frac{1}{10}$ of its primitive volume. These experiments were made in thick glass tubes hermetically sealed. The degree of pressure was estimated by the change of volume of air confined by mercury in a small graduated gage, and placed in a part of the tube exposed to the atmosphere; and the temperatures were diminished from the degree at which the gage was introduced, *i. e.* the atmospheric temperature by freezing mixtures, so that the temperature of the air within the gage could not be considerably altered.' — 'The denser the vapour, or the more difficult of condensation the gas, the greater will be its power under changes of temperature, as a mechanical agent; thus carbonic acid will be much more powerful than muriatic acid.' — 'Azote, if it could be obtained fluid, would, there is no doubt, be far more powerful than carbonic acid; and hydrogen, in such a state, would exert a force almost incalculably great, and liable to immense changes from the slightest variations of temperature.'

To illustrate this notion, Sir H. quotes an experiment in which, alcohol of sulphur being raised 20° above its boiling point, its elastic force was found equal to less than that of air compressed to $\frac{1}{2}$. Being heated to 320° under a pressure equal to that of air condensed to $\frac{1}{2}$, a similar increment of 20° was added, and its elastic force became equivalent to that of an atmosphere compressed to $\frac{1}{100}$.

The author next observes that, if we would apply condensed gases as mechanical agents, the materials of the apparatus must be as strong and as perfectly joined as those used by Mr. Perkins in his high pressure steam-engine; but the small differences of temperature, required to create an elastic force equal to the pressure of many atmospheres, will greatly diminish the risk of explosion; and even the difference of temperature between sunshine and shade may suffice to produce effects hitherto obtained only by a great expenditure of fuel.

A simple yet apparently paradoxical mode of liquifying gases is pointed out by Sir Humphry; viz. by applying heat to one leg of a bent tube containing ether, or spirit of wine, or water, and placing sulphurous acid gas or prussic acid gas in the other leg, confined by mercury: when, by the pressure of the gas of æther, the other gases will be liquified. In this way, water may be impregnated with carbonic acid without mechanical pressure. It is conceived that, by the great cold produced when liquid bodies become æriform, this method may be employed for the preservation of animal and vegetables substances for food.

Appendix to the preceding Paper. On the Changes of Volume produced on Gases in different States of Density by Heat. —

It

It is, as Sir H. Davy observes, important to ascertain the laws of the elastic forces exerted by vapors, or gases, changed from liquids by increase of temperature under compression; especially the rate of expansion or elastic force in atmospheres in different states of density. Preceding experiments have shewn that elastic fluids of different densities expand equally by equal increments of temperature; and hence mercury and air, or other gases, are equivalent in their expansions for any number of degrees in the thermometrical scale between the freezing and the boiling points of water. The increase of the spring or elastic force of air, also, by increase of temperature, is apparently in the direct ratio of its density. — The able President then proceeded to find the changes of volume in gases at different temperatures, in various states of condensation. The expansion of air under different degrees of pressure was proved by experiment to be exactly the same.

On the Temperature at considerable Depths of the Caribbean Sea. By Captain Edward Sabine, F. R. S. — At the depth of about 1000 fathoms of line, the thermometer registered 45,5 in one instance, and in another 49,5: while the water on the surface was from 82,5 to 83,2. The difference, therefore, between the surface and a depth of water exceeding 1000 fathoms, was 33,3 by one thermometer, and 37,3 by another. The instruments used in this experiment were made expressly for the purpose to which they were applied, and were of the ordinary construction of Six's registering thermometer: but the top of the tube, in which is contained the index of heat, was hermetically sealed, instead of being closed by a cock, as is sometimes the case; and Captain S. has no reason to doubt the accuracy of the experiment.

Second Part of the Paper on the Nerves of the Orbit. By Charles Bell, Esq. — The ingenious labors of this author being continued, the result is contained in the present memoir.

In the arrangement of the nerves of the orbit, Mr. Bell observes that, 'although only nine can be properly enumerated as proceeding from the brain, six of these go to the eye; the second, third, fourth, part of the fifth, sixth, and seventh go into the orbit, and may be said to be concentrated into a space no larger than a nut-shell.' Mr. B. cannot give demonstrative evidence, but thinks that he is able to prove that there is a correspondence between the compound functions of an organ and the nerves transmitted to it. He employs many pages in endeavoring to unravel the intricacy of the nerves of the head, and to assign to each nerve its proper office. —

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'The first nerve is provided with a sensibility to effluvia, and is properly called *olfactory nerve*. The second is the *optic*, and all impressions on it excite only sensations of light. The third nerve goes to the muscles of the eye solely, and is a *voluntary nerve* by which the eye is directed to objects. The fourth nerve performs the insensible traversing motions of the eye-ball. It combines the motions of the eye-ball and eye-lids, and connects the eye with the *respiratory system*. The fifth is the *universal nerve of sensation* to the head and face, to the skin, to the surfaces of the eye, the cavities of the nose, the mouth and tongue. The sixth nerve is a *muscular and voluntary nerve* of the eye. The seventh is the *auditory nerve*; and the division of it, called *portio dura*, is the motor nerve of the face and eye-lids, and the respiratory nerve, and that on which the expression of the face depends. The eighth, and the accessory nerve, are *respiratory nerves*. The ninth is the *motor of the tongue*. The tenth is the first of the spinal nerves; it has a double root and a double office: it is both a *muscular* and a *sensitive nerve*.'

Mr. Bell remarks that, if the nerves of any other complex organ had been taken, his task would have been easier: for example, if the nerves of the tongue, it could be proved that the three nerves belong to three distinct functions, and stand related to three different classes of parts. So *taste* and *sensibility* belong to the office of the fifth nerve, voluntary motion to the ninth, and deglutition to the glosso-pharyngeal nerve of the tongue.

Errors have been committed in supposing that ganglia cut off sensation, for Mr. Bell has ascertained that all the nerves, which bestow sensibility from the top of the head to the toe, have ganglia on their roots; and those which have no ganglia are not nerves of sensation, but are inserted 'for the purpose of ordering the muscular frame.' He conceives also that the notion of a fluid moving backwards and forwards in the tubes of the nerves, equally adapted to produce sensation and motion, has perpetuated the error that the different nerves of sensation are appropriated to their offices by the texture of the extremities. Every nerve of sense, on the contrary, is limited in its exercise, and can minister only to certain perceptions. Fire will not give the sensation of heat to any nerve but that which is appropriated to the surface. The retina does not feel like the skin: but a point, which will prick the skin, being thrust against the retina, will cause a spark of fire or a flash of light. The tongue enjoys two senses, touch and taste: but, by selecting the extremity of a particular nerve, or a particular papilla, we can exercise either the one or the other separately. 'If we press a needle against a nerve of touch, we shall feel the sharpness, and

know the part of the organ in contact with the point: but if we touch a nerve of taste, we shall have no perception of form or of place, we shall experience a metallic taste.

The innovations of Bichat, says Mr. Bell, have not brought us a step nearer the truth, for he disregarded the facts of anatomy. What had been called the sympathetic system of nerves he called the ganglionic, although they are not more distinguished by ganglia than the other nerves, on which indeed the ganglia are remarkable for their size, number, and regularity. The ganglionic system is not isolated, as M. Bichat supposed, or 'a thing by itself,' for the connections of this part of the nervous system are universal. The wide-spreading fifth pair, and the thirty spinal nerves, give large and conspicuous roots to this system.

'Without comprehending the grand divisions of the nervous system, without a notion of the distinct properties of the individual nerves, or having made any distinctions of the columns of the spinal marrow, without even having ascertained the difference of cerebrum and cerebellum, Gall proceeded to describe the brain as composed of many particular and independent organs, and to assign to each the residence of some special faculty.

This elaborate and ingenious memoir is terminated by a protest against the new doctrines of the French physiologists, and a vindication of the English, namely, the Monros and the Hunters.

On Fossil Shells. By Lewis Weston Dillwyn, Esq. F.R.S. — In this paper, Mr. Dillwyn suggests a line of inquiry which may be greatly extended; and he thinks that the collected tendency of analogies between the habits of living animals, and the organic remains of the different strata, may serve to throw some light on the nature of the changes which he conceives the surface of our planet has undergone. It is to the fossil-remains of the molluscæ that the present observations are limited.

On the apparent Magnetism of Metallic Titanium. By William Hyde Wollaston, M.D. — In a memoir on this subject in the first part of the present volume, Dr. W. stated that, when the cubic crystals of titanium were freed from all particles of iron adherent to them, they no longer appeared to be attracted by the magnet: but subsequent examination has shewn him that, when a crystal is supported by a fine thread, the force of attraction is enough to draw it about 20° from a perpendicular; that is, equals about one-third of the weight of the metal. — From some experiments, Dr. W. thinks that about $\frac{1}{30}$ th part of iron as an alloy in titanium, which may be deemed probable from its origin in the
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the midst of iron, would suffice for the power of the magnet over it, without regarding the metal itself as magnetic; — and, ‘ although the quantity thus rendered sensible does not appear sufficient to account for the magnetic force observed, there seems more reason to ascribe it to this impurity, than to suppose titanium possessed of that peculiar property in a degree so far inferior to the other known magnetic metals.’

An Account of the Effect of Mercurial Vapours on the Crew of his Majesty's Ship Triumph, in the Year 1810. By William Burnett, M. D., formerly Physician and Inspector of Hospitals in the Mediterranean Fleet. — The noxious effects of inhaling air impregnated with mercurial vapor are, as Dr. B. observes, well known: but he has been properly induced to record an extraordinary instance of the kind in the case of the *Triumph* man of war, of 74 guns, at Cadiz, in the year 1810. In the month of March, a Spanish vessel laden with quicksilver having been wrecked, the boats of the *Triumph* were sent to save some of the cargo, and brought on board that ship about 130 tons of the mercury, which were stowed in the bread-room. The metal was inclosed in bladders, the bladders in small barrels, and the barrels in boxes; and the bladders having rotted, it became diffused in considerable quantities through the ship, mixing with the bread and other provisions. Many of the crew were very soon taken ill; and in three weeks 200 were affected with ptyalism, ulcerations of the mouth, partial paralysis, and bowel-complaints. The ship was then ordered to Gibraltar, and underwent frequent ablutions; the provisions, stores, and even the shingle ballast, were removed on shore; and the sick were sent to the hospital. Nevertheless, on re-stowing the hold every man so employed was seized with ptyalism; and during the *Triumph's* passage on her return to Cadiz, fresh attacks occurred daily and numerously. In consequence, she sailed for England, June 13., and experienced fresh breezes from the N. E.: the men were kept constantly on deck; the ship was aired by wind-sails; the lower deck-ports were kept open whenever possible; and the number of new cases decreased sensibly: but many of those who had been previously affected became worse. On their arrival at Plymouth, however, July 5., no case of ptyalism remained on the books. — It should be added that almost *all the live stock* on board died; and even the mice, that were seen to come into the ward-room, were observed to leap up to some height, and fall dead on the deck.

After having reported the facts, Dr. Burnett inquires whether the cause of these prejudicial effects on the animal constitution is to be referred to the reception of food impreg-

nated with particles of mercury, or to the inhaling of air impregnated with mercurial vapor; and we entirely coincide with him in his conclusion that the latter must be assigned as the origin of the diseases produced. Even the ship itself was affected by the mercury, the decks being covered by a black powder; and brass cocks, copper bolts, gold and silver money, were coated with quicksilver, though none of the metal was discovered among the powder in a native or globular state. — Dr. Burnett does not detail the curative plan pursued: but he states that sulphur, given internally, was in no respect advantageous, while it increased the affection of the bowels; and ‘the only plan which produced effectual relief was removal from the ship, with the frequent use of small doses of neutral salts and detergent gargles.’

Many of the Triumph’s crew had been previously afflicted with malignant ulcers; and, although they had been cured in the most complete manner, the ulcers broke out again, and assumed a gangrenous appearance. The vapor was also very deleterious to those who had any tendency to pulmonic affections: three men died of phthisis who had never complained before they were saturated with the mercury; and two others were left at Gibraltar, laboring under confirmed phthisis.

Observations on Air found in the Pleura in a Case of Pneumato-Thorax; with Experiments on the Absorption of different Kinds of Air introduced into the Pleura. By John Davy, M. D. — The subject of these observations and experiments was the body of a man 30 years of age, who died of a consumption. On dissection, by perforating the right cavity of the thorax with a scalpel, under water, 212 cubic inches of air were collected in receivers, and 13 cubic inches escaped. On inflating the right lung by an opening in the trachea, air passed freely from the lung into the cavity of the chest, through an opening by an ulceration in the upper lobe. Tubercles and vomicæ were found, which communicated with the trachea by means of a large bronchial tube. It appeared that a kind of valvular structure of the pleura and lung allowed air to pass in inspiration into the cavity of the chest, but not to return in expiration; hence the air accumulated in the thorax. Some of the small tubercles were translucent. No air was observable in the blood-vessels, or in any part of the body in the cellular membrane. The air found in the cavity of the chest extinguished flame. Examined by lime-water and phosphorus, (which sublimed in it without effect,) 100 parts were found to contain eight of carbonic acid gas, and 92 of azotic gas. As this air was supposed to be derived from the atmosphere, the next question was what was become
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of much of the oxygen, and whence arose so much carbonic acid? From experiments of inflating the cavities of the chest of dogs with atmospheric air, by a double bellows, through an incision, and closed by a suture, and in 48 hours killing them to collect the inflated air, it appeared that this air consisted of 93 parts of azotic gas, and seven of oxygen gas. Oxygen, therefore, was absorbed in a greater proportion than the azote. — As common air introduced into the cellular membrane, and into the cavity of the abdomen, has been in other instances entirely absorbed, it seems probable that, in the present experiment, some azote was also absorbed.

The quantity of the carbonic acid in the air of the cavity of the chest is explained by the atmospheric air inspired, the oxygen being absorbed in a greater proportion than the carbonic acid was secreted or compounded. To determine whether the carbonic acid was formed by secretion from the pleura, or was compounded in the lungs and mixed with atmospheric air passed into the cavity of the chest, an experiment was made. Common air was passed into the pleura; on expiration, part of it was forced back into the bladder: the exterior wound was closed; and the animal suffered nothing for two days. The same experiment was then made on the other side of the chest, with little effect on the health of the animal; which was killed in 24 hours. The body being immediately examined, about three cubic inches of air only were procured from the left pleura, which were found to consist of 18.3 carbonic acid gas, 78.3 azotic gas, 3.4 oxygen gas: while the air admitted consisted of 20.0 carbonic acid gas, 63.2 azotic gas, and 16.8 oxygen gas: — indicating that, during a stay of three days in the pleura, the oxygen had been absorbed in a greater degree than the carbonic acid gas, and the latter in a greater degree than the azote. The result was nearly the same with the air in both cavities of the chest. Hence it was concluded that the carbonic acid was not derived from the surface of the pleura by secretion or exhalation, but from the respired air, through the ulcerated opening of the lung, in the instance of the man whose case occasioned the experiments.

The pleura appearing to absorb one kind of air more than another, and in no ratio of their solubility in water, was a circumstance rather novel. The subject was, therefore, prosecuted farther, by introducing hydrogen, nitrous oxide, and nitrous gas, into the pleura of some unfortunate dogs. A mixture of hydrogen and carbonic acid gases, admitted into the left pleura, produced no effect: but a mixture of nitrous gas and azote being introduced into the right pleura, the

health was immediately affected, and the animal soon died. The air of the left pleura consisted of a much smaller proportion of carbonic acid than had been introduced, with a very large quantity of azote, and probably no discoverable hydrogen. From the right pleura was obtained nitrous gas absorbable by solution of green sulphate of iron, and a large proportion of azote. Air has been found in a cavity of the mediastinum communicating with the right pleura, and containing a lobule of the right lung: Whence came the azote? probably, from the blood. Air seems to pass readily from the air-cells of the lungs into the pleura: but the author does not conclude that the azote in question is derived from the blood by secretion. He appears, however, justly positive that Sir E. Home's conclusion is erroneous, that carbonic acid exists in the blood: —1. because the alkali of the blood is not saturated with carbonic acid; 2. because the serum of the blood is more capable of absorbing carbonic acid than even water, as ascertained by experiment; 3. because the coagulation of blood spontaneously, and the coagulation of serum by heat, have never disengaged carbonic acid; 4. because no carbonic acid has ever been disengaged from blood placed under the exhausted receiver.

Dr. Davy's experiments seem to shew that the pleura possesses the power of exhaling and absorbing gases. — It has been supposed that the skin has these properties.

An *Appendix* to these 'Observations' contains an account of the existence of air in the thorax, from which the patient was relieved by perforating the cavity to allow the air to escape: but it does not appear that the disease was cured, the lungs being probably tuberculous. This paper is valuable for the facts, but inconclusive in reasoning.

On Bitumen in Stones. By the Right Honorable George Knox, F.R.S. — By subjecting various minerals to distillation when pulverized, in order to obtain their volatile ingredients, Mr. Knox procured bitumen; and he enumerates 28 different kinds of stones treated for this purpose. The bitumen, he thinks, exists in the stones, and is an *educt* of the fire: but the *ammonia* obtained in the process is a *product* from the decomposition of the bitumen, either by the iron of the retort, or the carbon of the stone at a high temperature. Certain stones are both vitrifiable and agglutinate, and form substances resembling pumice. The conversion of obsidian into a species of pumice, and the proof that it contains bitumen, will probably be conclusive in support of the arrangement which places that substance in connection with pitch-stone: but the test of pulverized stones containing car—
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bon is probably the *scintillation* produced when they are thrown on melted nitre. The conclusion is, a recommendation of previous distillation in all analyses of stones to obtain the liquid bitumen, and the carbon; and that the residuum in the retort should be examined for the remaining carbon, either by burning it off, or by other means according to the judgment of the operator.

We have now gone through the contents of this bulky and important publication of the Society, and shall speedily pay attention to the first part of their Transactions for the present year.

ART. IX. *The Cross and the Crescent*; an Heroic, Metrical Romance: partially founded on Madame Cottin's "Mathilde." By the Rev. James Beresford, A.M., &c. 8vo. pp.382. 14s. Boards. Hatchards. 1824.

IT is a discouraging hint to convey to the author of a long and elaborate poem, if we begin by observing that with all its beauties, of which we frankly acknowledge that it has many, it will probably be but little read. Such, however, we regret to say, is the present case: for the poem before us is not only much too long as a whole, but the parts are extended with a torturing and unnecessary prolixity, which renders us unwilling to proceed. The story, also, does not possess any power to create the breathless curiosity, or the eager impatience, which is requisite for the perusal of a romance: for Richard the Lion-hearted, the second Crusade, the adventures of Matilda, and the other incidents interwoven in the piece, though in themselves striking, are not sufficiently novel to carry us pleasantly and lightly along a journey of nearly 400 closely printed octavo pages of versification. Yet we meet with passages in Mr. Beresford's poem, which, if they have been equalled, have not been often surpassed; and many readers, who would find it a task beyond their endurance to peruse it entirely through, will pause with delight on the highly-wrought scenes with which it is not scantily interspersed.

Richard, before he sets out on his pious expedition, visits his sister Matilda, who had been educated in the gloom of a convent; and she is seized with an invincible enthusiasm, which determines her to proceed with her brother to the Holy Land.

Admitted, — to Matilda's arms he sprang:
She, while he spoke his joy, with speechless hold
Clung to a brother's breast; — ere yet he told
That melting name, her heart of Richard sang:

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"Breathes

"Breathes not another with a port so bold!"—
 Then, wilder'd with amaze,—with love,—with fears,
 In restless tumult strange
 Whirling her thoughts from change to change,—
 She sank, dissolv'd in helpless tears.

'The chief, in pity's tend'rest mood,
 Wav'd the surrounding sisters to her aid:—
 In vain!—All motionless they stood,
 Till kindly nature raised the vanquish'd maid.—
 Though foot profane ne'er past before
 The gates of that forbidden door,
 That lock'd within its awful bound
 Religious breathings, pure, profound!—
 Bliss of mortal spirits refin'd,—
 The rich, deep, music of the mind!—
 Yet, from that grave delirium shook,
 All, now, forgot the govern'd look,—
 Ne'er fix'd but on devotion's book,—
 To each unknown what earthly mood
 Upsent in haste the glowing blood,
 That, now, its modest curtain through,
 Betrays the lighted cheek to view.

'His high-built structure, broad, and grand,—
 His arm,—a sceptre of command,—
 The sword that, ringing at his side,
 Still to each vivid start replied,—
 Those plumes that, to his nod resign'd,
 Bound with the boundings of his mind,—
 An eye,—as kindled thought inspires,—
 Flashing, alive, intenser fires,—
 A brow,—as, there, and there alone,
 Dominion triumph'd on his throne,—
 Yea, Richard sudden in full blaze confest,
 'Mid vestals, hush'd in the still shades of rest,—
 Invaded with such wild surprize
 Their yielding fantasies,—their guardless eyes,—
 That each, though angels warn'd away,
 Must, in that form, portentous man survey:—
 So burst upon the blind th' o'erwhelming gift of day!

Mr. B.'s description of Matilda's parting from the scenes of her childhood, and her companions, is partly conveyed in blank verse, for he disdains all metrical uniformity,—but it shews great powers of expression.

"Calm scene of all my fairy childhood past!—
 Asylum, in whose nursing bosom dear
 I smil'd the hours away,—beyond whose bound
 I guess'd no joy, nor foster'd one desire—
 Where kindness begg'd the heart I gladly gave,
 And all was love—where, far as mem'ry shews,

These eyes have been familiar with the tear
 Of deep delight, — and learn'd from holy lips
 To pay those drops in sacrifice to Heav'n —
 I leave thee! — but, in *mind*, will leave thee never! —
 ‘ “ O Thou, whose motions bear me hence away!
 Grant me to bow my body on the ground
 Thine earthly presence glorified, — yea, there,
 To see thy soldiers vindicate from shame
 The sacred soil; — then, to this lov'd abode,
 The shrine of peace, conduct thy handmaid home! —
 There grew the blossom; — gather, there, the flow'r!” —
 Her heart discharg'd, — the vestal shook to air
 Each frailer thought, — and bent up ev'ry pow'r
 To the high calling of the hour —
 A pilgrim's part, thenceforward, all her care.’

We confess that we were not prepared for the unexpected weakness of the young lady, when the sea for the first time burst on her view. The whole passage appears to us little better than absurd, and, with many others of the same kind, might well have been omitted.

‘ At last, their travel stay'd on a bold steep, —
 Whence, full and sudden, on her eye, and ear, —
 Unheard, unseen, till now, nor fancied near, —
 Broke, in tempestuous ire, the monstrous deep! —
 Down sank the maid, — astounding terror's prey: —
 She wist that, one time more, a rising God
 Had call'd the store of waters, with his rod,
 To swell on the green world, and wash man's race away!’

A tremendous tempest drives the voyagers to Cyprus, where they are inhospitably received by the king; whom, consequently, Richard dethrones, in order to place the crown on the head of Lennora, Princess of Navarre, a lady who was also sailing on the same expedition, but had been shipwrecked and detained on that barbarous coast. The lion-hearted hero marries her, and is interrupted in the midst of his matrimonial festivities by Lusignan; who calls on him to support his claim to the crown of Jerusalem, of which he had been dispossessed by Conrad, whose usurpation was supported by Philip of France. He obeys the call, leaving the royal dames in the island, and re-embarks on his enterprize against the Saracen. Here he performs prodigies of valor, and sends a vessel for the ladies to Cyprus, who embark, but are taken by Hadel, a Saracenic warrior of great renown in arms. The sea-fight is described with much pomp and prodigality of diction; and the following part of it reminds us of the manner of Sir Walter Scott. The poet is describing Hadel's prowess in the combat.

‘ Whoe'er

' Whoe'er would time his fatal sweep,
 Must catch it from the lightning's leap! —
 Long ere, yet, his men of might
 Attend their leader's fiery flight, —
 Working ruin wide and far,
 Himself, alone, performs the war,
 While, at his feet, a rising flood
 Measures the fall of Christian blood. —
 Where'er the dire invader flies,
 Courage recoils in stunn'd surprize :
 Grim as the bison, or the bull,
 When heady rage is at the full, —
 Beyond all record of the muse,
 He fells, — he tramples, — he pursues, —
 Plagues, at their heels, the scatt'ring sheep, —
 Or hurls them to the safer deep! —

' Oppose his course? — 'Twere better done,
 Against the hurricane to run! —
 Nor valour, here, nor flight, may save, —
 Down go the coward, and the brave. —
 ' Some liv'd, — and many a lasting scar
 Shall boast the luck that sav'd 'em there,
 When helm, nor hammer'd buckler, stay'd
 The swoop of his devouring blade. —
 Philistia, thus thine armies reel'd,
 When Samson mow'd the bristling field!

' More firm, the Montmorenci stood : —
 He, nobly prodigal of blood,
 Repeats the disappointed blow
 At Mahoun's friend, — Matilda's foe : —
 That foe, magnanimous in ire,
 Applauding, spares his youthful fire, —
 Hunts for his victims in the throng
 Where fight the stalwart, and the strong, —
 Gives to great vengeance all its room,
 And marks the mighty for the tomb!

We have a large allowance of fighting, and a great abundance of love, throughout the poem. If it were more compressed, it would be more perfect; and, had we been consulted before it was printed, we should have dropped, perhaps

" in unwilling ears,
 This saving counsel, keep your piece *nine years*."

Mr. Beresford has long been known to the public, and has heretofore contributed to the "*Pleasures*" while he has described "*The Miseries of Human Life*."

ART. X. *Five Years' Residence in the Canadas*: including a Tour through Part of the United States of America in the Year 1823. By Edward Allen Talbot, Esq., of the Talbot Settlement, Upper Canada. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1*l.* 1*s.* Boards. Longman and Co. 1824.

ART. XI. *The Emigrant's Note-Book and Guide*; with Recollections of Upper and Lower Canada during the late War. By Lieut. J. C. Morgan, late 2d Battalion, Royal Marines. 12mo. 7*s.* 6*d.* Boards. Longman and Co.

THE rigor of a Canadian winter has something in it appalling to the resident of our crowded manufacturing cities. A hardy Highlander and a poor houseless Irishman may brave it fearlessly: but, for the pale and sickly weaver, accustomed to the heated atmosphere of a manufactory, — for him to lie in cold obstruction, and

“reside
In thrilling regions of thick-ribbed ice,
Is too horrible —
The weariest and most loathed worldly life
That age, ach, penury, and imprisonment,
Can lay on nature, is a paradise
To what he fears of *Canada*.” —

A most erroneous opinion, however, exists respecting the climate of Canada; for, instead of being covered with snow and desolated with eternal winter, according to the common supposition, a recent traveller*, quite uninfected by the emigration-fever, says that the climate particularly of Upper Canada is very fine. The winter is indeed severely cold, but it is a pure clear cold, that enables a person who is well clad to take much exercise in the open air, and is uninterrupted by thaws or wet; and the Canadians have no spring, but are plunged into a summer of intense heat at once. The soil is at least equal to that of the Western States of America; and the climate is far more salubrious; notwithstanding which, the banks of the St. Lawrence have been neglected in favor of the banks of the Mississippi. The climate of the Lower province is said not to be so good as that of the Upper; and the inhabitants of the former, having preserved their language, their religion, and their manners, differ materially from their neighbours. Such is the opinion of the author of “An Excursion through the United States,” &c.: but Mr. Talbot, who only doubts whether Upper Canada be not a more healthy

* “An Excursion through the United States and Canada by an English Gentleman.”—We shall speedily make a report of this work.

region than either England or Ireland, adds, 'It is a *matter of indubitable certainty* that Lower Canada is, in this respect, greatly superior to both.' The French Canadians, however, are represented as a very contented set of people, with much leisure and few cares, and possessing all the lightness of spirit that characterizes the nation from which they are descended: but they have no energy or spirit of enterprize; they continue to live in the same comfortless sort of houses which were built by the first emigrants; they have made little or no progress in agriculture, and are very unwilling to adopt the most obvious improvements. They have a great inclination for a roving life, are the only hunters for the North-West Company, and on their hunting expeditions, which sometimes last for years, they agree better with the Indians than any other set of men.

'In Lower Canada, the winter sets in about the 20th of October; at which time the snow begins to fall, and continues on the ground until about the 16th of April following, which two months are the most unpleasant for travellers. During this period, the cold is intense, the general range of the thermometer being from 10 above to 30 degrees below zero. In the Upper Province, particularly in the western parts, the winter seldom sets in till the middle of December, and the snow usually disappears about the latter end of March. The difference in climate between the two provinces is, however, much greater in the duration than in the degree of heat or cold. In Upper Canada, the summers are longer and equally as hot as those of the Sister Province; but the winters, though shorter, are nearly as severe in proportion to their continuance.

'The cold of winter, however severe, produces no unfavourable effects on the human constitution, except such as may be avoided by a little care; but a variety of diseases are often engendered in the Upper Province by the oppressive heat of summer, which annually lay a great portion of the inhabitants prostrate on the bed of sickness for many months. Notwithstanding this, I do not think the climate is a very unfavourable one. Diseases of a contagious and dangerous description are little known in the country; and, I believe, few persons object to either province on account of its climate.' —

'Melons, the seeds of which are carelessly strewed over the ground, and covered without any attention to system or neatness, attain a degree of perfection, both as to size and flavour, that the northern fruits of Great Britain can never acquire after all the artificial aid which they obtain. In Upper Canada they generally weigh 20lbs., and the largest 50lbs., affording one of the greatest luxuries, without labour or expence of any kind, to a people who are little capable of duly appreciating the delicacies which their indulgent skies scatter round them with the most profuse liberality. If the climate of Canada were as unfavourable

able to the growth of fruits and vegetables, as that of Great Britain and Ireland, its inhabitants would live and die without ever partaking of either: for they are too indolent and careless to put forth those exertions which would then be necessary to procure them. If manna were showered down from heaven into their mouths, I dare say they would swallow it; but if it fell upon the ground, they would submit to a degree of partial starvation before they would take the trouble of collecting it.

It is not to be doubted, also, that the climate will be softened as the country becomes cleared. Nearly nineteen-twentieths of the lands in Upper Canada are luxuriant forests; but, wherever large clearances of timber have taken place, marshes have disappeared, creeks and rivulets have dried up, poisonous insects and vermin have been much diminished, and the intensity of a summer's heat as well as of a winter's cold has perceptibly and progressively abated.

Mr. Talbot has very honestly put his readers on their guard, by stating that he is a *settler* in the country which he describes. The frankness, too, with which he has related the circumstances that led to his emigration, excites a sympathy in his favor; and the distinctness with which he has uttered his warning voice against any undue expectations that an emigrant may cherish, as to the artless simplicity and unsophisticated manners of the American settlers among whom he intends to take up his abode, is a guarantee for his ingenuousness and sincerity. The father of Mr. Talbot, who was once possessed of a competency in the south of Ireland, found himself, at the conclusion of the late war, descending from that sphere of life in which he had long been accustomed to move: he had a numerous family, and had qualified his sons for the army by a suitable education: but the door of military preferment was shut at the return of peace; and he was unsuccessful in his search for avenues to advancement in civil life. To avoid the mortification of passing the evening of his days in comparative poverty, near to the place of his birth and to the very possessions which had, for ages, been the abode of his family, he resolved to emigrate, not to the United States, where he must separate himself from British laws and institutions, 'and teach his little children the political creed of a republic for which he could never himself feel a sentiment of attachment,' but to our own colony in Upper Canada. He therefore obtained a grant of land from government, to the extent of one hundred acres for each male individual who might accompany him above the age of seventeen; and such was the confidence reposed in his character, *that fifty-four families, consisting of nearly two hundred persons*, presented themselves

as candidates for emigration under his auspices. — On the 27th of July, 1818, the ship "Brunswick," with her freight of heavy-hearted wanderers, anchored before the city of Quebec, after a voyage of forty-three days. During this short period, twelve of the party were consigned to the deep; and such was the rapid sweep of mortality, that as many more were interred in the different islands of the St. Lawrence, all of them children under fourteen years of age, and who a few days before were cheerful and healthy!

The choice of a settlement was a matter of the first and greatest importance; and a namesake of Mr. T., namely, Colonel Talbot, who had sold his commission thirty years before, and attached himself to the woods and wilds of Canada, where he had obtained a grant of 100,000 acres, and had seen a thriving settlement rise round him, recommended the township of London, which is situated about twenty-four miles on the north of Lake Erie. It forms a square divided into sixteen *concessions*, each of which contains 6400 acres; and these concessions are subdivided into lots of 200 acres, thirty-two in each.

' The London and western districts, which extend along the shores of Lakes Erie and St. Clair, from the mouth of the Grand River to the southern extremity of Lake Huron, possess the finest climate and the most luxuriant soil, perhaps, on the whole American continent. They are, however, far remote from the only maritime outlet which the Canadas afford, that is, the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The Falls of Niagara, which intercept the navigation between Erie and Ontario, preclude the possibility of any adequate return for the exports of these districts, so long as agricultural produce is low, and the navigation continues as at present unimproved. But if a canal were formed to connect the two lakes, this difficulty would be entirely removed, and the London and western districts would then be placed in almost equally advantageous circumstances with those of the Gore and the Niagara: in every thing else they already possess a decided superiority. All kinds of grain, and every species of plant, which are cultivated in North America, with the exception of indigo and cotton alone, will be found in the greatest possible perfection in those favoured districts. Every description of fruit appears, from the fineness of its quality and the peculiarity of its flavour, to be indigenous. The summers are oppressively hot, but the winters are much milder than in any of the eastern districts. Population is here also rapidly on the increase, there being at present in the two districts 22,000 inhabitants; nearly 3000 of whom are of French descent.

' In these districts, and more particularly in that of London, there are extensive tracts of land, almost wholly free from any sort of timber. Such land is commonly called "Plains," and is

for the most part of a light sandy nature, badly watered, and greatly inferior to the timbered land. There are, however, many small tracts of this kind of a very luxuriant quality. In the vicinity of Long Point, on the banks of the river Ouse, and in the township of Burford, are the most extensive and valuable plains in the province. From the Indian settlement on the river Ouse, to the village of Burford, a distance of nearly 13 miles, there is not an acre of woodland to be seen; and yet, in this tract alone, there are at least 100,000 acres; a great part of which belongs to the Indians of the Six Nations, who frequently, for a trifling compensation, grant leases for 999 years to the Canadians. But the title, by which these lands are held, is a very disputable one; for the government does not appear to sanction such bargains. — The Long Point Plains are still more extensive and better cultivated.

It is commonly supposed that all domestic animals degenerate in America: but the fact appears to be that they are shamefully treated and neglected. In the winter of 1822, fifteen hundred head of cattle perished in the township of London alone, and a proportionate number in all the other new townships of the province; every one of which might have been saved if they had been housed, and the common feelings of humanity exercised towards them. Although the sheep are the most miserable-looking animals imaginable, their carcass seldom weighing more than 50 lbs, and their fleece not exceeding $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs., the wool is greatly superior to English wool. Lord Selkirk introduced the Merino breed. The horses of the Lower Province are small, and barbarously treated, but hardy, fleet, and sure-footed: they were originally imported from Normandy; and great numbers are now annually exported to the West India islands, where they are found to bear the heat of the climate better than the English or the American breed. The horses of the Upper Province are larger and finer in their limbs than the Canadian horses, but cannot endure the same fatigue and hardship.

Mr. Talbot deserves praise for the pains which he has taken to collect an account of the various birds, beasts, fishes, insects, reptiles, trees, herbs, shrubs, and horticultural productions of the country; and a residence of five years has afforded him an opportunity of becoming personally acquainted with the habits and haunts of various animals, which has not been thrown away. Not being a professed and scientific naturalist, he has given a popular description, which we imagine may be very useful to the new settler: but he must necessarily have taken much on trust, and perhaps has sometimes lent too credulous an ear to idle stories. In his account of the rattle-snake, we should not have expected him to have revived the long exploded belief in its powers of fascination. The black snake, too, he tells us with all the gravity imagin-

able,

able, possesses this power in a still more eminent degree, and has besides a trait peculiar to himself, 'a singular faculty of flagellation which he sometimes exercises in a very affectionate manner on his luckless brother: for when he has embraced the rattle-snake within his ample coil, he whips him to death with his tail. He will also entwine himself round a child, or the leg of a man, and never disengage himself till he is absolutely cut to pieces.' It is commonly believed that the rattle-snake always gives warning when about to attack either man or beast: but Mr. Talbot has killed several himself, and has seen many destroyed by other people, and he asserts that they very seldom rattle when attacked. The animal seems unwilling to assail a man, unless in its own defence: but, when about to bite, its eyes sparkle, its whole body becomes bloated with rage, its head and neck alternately flatten and distend. When irritated, it contracts and expands its lips, disclosing at intervals its forked tongue, and those fatal receptacles of poison which inflict instant death on the victim. If observed before it makes its spring, it is easily avoided; and a single stroke with a small stick disables it, though it is very tenacious of life. In the spring of the year, great numbers are found in a feeble condition, basking in the sunshine at the mouth of their caves; and at this season, before they have recovered from the debilitating effects of their winter-confinement, persons with large boots reaching above the knee come purposely to destroy them, and will frequently kill several hundreds before they can regain their retreat: but the foetor arising from the dead bodies produces an immediate sickness, and compels the assailants to make a speedy retreat.

As to wolves, bears, and rattle-snakes, however, these are nothing, absolutely nothing, to the ceaseless and maddening torture inflicted on the poor settler by swarms innumerable of blood-sucking insects,

"All the charms

Of Sycorax, toads, beetles, bats, light on him!"

If locusts and grasshoppers lay waste whole fields of grain and grass, and destroy every vegetable production within their march; if the bite of the horse-fly, as virulent as the wasp-sting, never suffers the ox, or the deer, or the animal from which it takes its name, to graze or to repose in peace; neither is man, woman, or child, in the wood or on the plain, by night or by day, at home or abroad, free from the tormenting attack of the mosquito, for at least four months in the year; during which time, says Mr. T., an inhabitant of Canada might as well hope to roll back the current of the St. Lawrence,

as to secure himself a moment's relief from the insatiable stings of these unwearied tormentors. Neither the house nor even the bed affords any security: 'no spot, however sacred to repose, can fix a barrier to their entrance; and the reign of disquietude and pain is, during summer, absolute and universal.' These worse than Egyptian plagues inflict punishment with greater severity on children than adults; their heads and necks swell to a frightful degree, their sufferings are dreadful, and their appearance is most piteous.

Many of our readers will be amused with the following particulars concerning an insect which is highly prized wherever it is found:

'Bees, which are now very plentiful in every part of North America, were, it is said, never seen in the country before the arrival of Europeans. The Indians, who have no name for them in their own language, call them "English flies."

'Honey is very cheap in all the old settlements; and many of the farmers have from 20 to 30 hives; independently of which, trees are discovered in the forests from whose hollow trunks between 70 and 150 lbs. of honey are frequently extracted. These trees are found out in a very singular manner: persons who are deputed to seek them collect a number of bees from the flowers bordering on the forests; and confine them in a small box, in the bottom of which is a piece of honey-comb, and in the lid a square of glass, large enough to admit the light into every part. When the bees are supposed to have satisfied themselves with honey, two or three are allowed to escape, and the direction which they take in flying away is attentively observed, until they become lost in the distance. The hunter, as the bee-catcher is called, then proceeds towards the spot where his view became obscured; and, releasing one or two more of his prisoners, he marks their course as he did that of their precursors. This process is repeated until the bees which are let fly, instead of following in the same direction as their predecessors, fly in that which is directly opposite. When this occurs, the hunter is convinced that he must have passed the object of his pursuit. For it is a fact universally received, that if you take a bee from a flower situate at any given distance south of the tree to which that bee belongs, and carry it in the closest confinement to an equal distance on the north side of the tree, he will, when allowed to escape, after flying in a circle for a moment, make his course directly to his *dulce domum*, without inclining in the least to the right hand or the left. The hunter, who has patience, intelligence, and perseverance on his side, is therefore certain of ultimate success: for the direction which the first bee takes is infallibly that in which the nest-tree lies; so that when the bees which are subsequently released reverse their flight and seem to go back to the place from which the first flew, the sportsman knows that he has passed by the destined tree. His next great object is, to distinguish the tree which contains the bees, from others which

stand in the same direction. This would of course be a difficult task to an uninitiated person; but the ingenuity of the American hunter has supplied him with means, by which he can allure the bees from the tree where they have deposited their honey, when it is not remotely situated. This is effected by placing a piece of honey-comb upon a heated brick, the odour of which, while in the act of melting, is so strong and alluring as to induce the whole tribe to come down from their citadel, in quest of honey, of which the fragrant smell had been the herald. Nothing then remains but to cut down the tree; and the quantity of honey found in its excavated trunk seldom fails to compensate very amply the perseverance of the huntsman.

It is with man, however, that we are more concerned than with insects; and that portion of Mr. Talbot's work which treats of the morals, manners, education, and customs of the Canadians, will be deemed the most interesting. We are sorry to say that this description is of the most disheartening nature. An English gentleman, not much smitten with the charms of Canada, observed that the country bore evident marks of the Divine displeasure, for that the birds could not sing, the flowers emitted no scent, the men had no hearts, and the women had no virtue; and Mr. Talbot's account of the state of society in Canada very much confirms the latter part of this reproach. If females in the higher class of society 'are seldom exempt from calumny while unmarried,' although they make good wives 'to indulgent husbands,' who allow their neighbours a participation in their affections, it is hardly to be expected that females in the inferior ranks should have very austere notions of chastity. Indeed, we might almost be inclined to think that the very word is unknown in the Canadian vocabulary. The same practice prevails there to this day which was formerly prevalent in Berne, and, we believe, some of the other cantons of Switzerland; namely, for a girl, who is not previously engaged, to admit a young man to her bed, with the concurrence of her father, mother, and family, as a preliminary to the matrimonial ceremony; and it is not the first nor the second meeting of this kind which binds the parties: but a considerable time elapses, during which either may decline the renewal of the visit without reproach. If a mutual agreement be created, the magistrate is made acquainted with the intention of the young people to marry; and he signifies the circumstance by affixing a notice on the doors of all public places in their respective townships, provided that no minister of the church of England resides within eighteen miles of either party. Then, if no person comes forwards with any just cause of impediment within the space of three weeks, they are declared to be lawfully joined

in holy matrimony. — Notwithstanding this custom of *kiltten*, as it is called in Switzerland, the Bernese females have never been reproached with incontinency after marriage, and have invariably been represented as making virtuous wives and affectionate mothers; but Mr. Talbot's account of the Canadian females is degrading to the sex. According to him, an unmarried woman with two or three bastards is not only received into society as if she had retained the purity of a vestal, but married women dispense their favors as freely as the single; and their husbands are so regardless of this shameless incontinence, so mean, so lost to every sense of decency and honor, that, if their wives do but attend to the necessary domestic arrangements, they will contentedly wear as many antlers as those ladies are disposed to plant on their foreheads.

For obvious reasons, a great demand for women prevails in many parts of the country, and particularly in the new settlements. Where a large family is a large fortune instead of an incumbrance, a young woman who has a child or two carries a dower in her hand, and gives the husband a sort of pledge for its increase. They all marry young: but the female child is considered by the father as his *bonâ fide* property till she has reached the age of eighteen: when, if he *has not sold her to the highest bidder before that time*, she regards herself as entirely independent of parental authority, and never deigns to consult father or mother in the choice of a husband. By a provincial statute, the father is intitled to the labors of his male children till they have respectively attained their twenty-first year, at which period they become free from his control.

Gain is the god at whose shrine Canadians sacrifice all principle and truth, all honor and religion. In their dealings with each other, Mr. Talbot says, they evince an unblushing propensity to cheat and deceive, and the greatest rascal among them is deemed the cleverest man.

The Canadians are not easily provoked, nor do their resentments ever carry them to any great excesses. Cold-hearted and little susceptible of refined impressions, *love* and *gratitude*, two of the most pleasing emotions that can actuate the mind of man, are equally strangers to their breasts: the want of personal charms in the fair sex, united with their fickle, unchaste, and inconstant dispositions, is little calculated to inspire the *former*; and for the exercise of the *latter*, there are few opportunities in Canada. No man is under the slightest obligation to his neighbour; for there is not such a thing as lending or borrowing in the country. A favour is never conferred without a prospect of immediate remuneration. Every thing has its price: if any man has need of

his neighbour's plough or harrow, cart or sleigh, even for a single hour, though he would find it impossible to *borrow*, he easily succeeds in *hiring* it. Men who have resided within sight of each other from the hour of their birth are so little disposed to oblige without instant compensation, that one cannot borrow from another a bridle, a saddle, a set of harness, or any other article whatever, without making a previous bargain, not only to repair all damages which it may sustain, but also to pay a certain stipulated sum for every day which it may be necessary to keep it from the owner. A plough, a waggon, and a sleigh, are each hired at two shillings and sixpence *per diem*; and every other article, from a harrow's tooth down to a cambric needle, at a proportionate price.' —

'Here, every man appears to live only for himself: social feelings, generous affections, and friendly emotions exist not in the country: selfishness, chicanery, and fraud have usurped their place.'

It will readily be supposed that education is entirely neglected, in a country — mark, reader, and blush when you reflect that Canada is a British colony! — in which morality and the common decencies of life are almost unknown. The great mass of the people are at present, says Mr. T., completely ignorant even of the rudiments of the most common learning. 'I have myself been present in the Honourable House of Assembly when some of the members, on being called to be chairmen of committees, have been under the necessity of requesting other members to read the bills; and, as the different clauses were rejected or adopted, also to request these their proxies to signify the same in writing.' (Vol. ii. p. 117.) In the country-parts of Canada, books are unknown; and, though in the year 1816 a law was passed for the establishment of common schools in every township, deficient funds and a jealousy between Europeans and Canadians have rendered it null and of no effect.

Letter xxxi. is expressly devoted to the state of religion and morals.

'If an almost total indifference to the religious observance of the Sabbath, — an unparalleled propensity to take the name of God in vain, — a perpetual use of the most dreadful oaths and imprecations, — an uniform violation of all decency, — and a practical contempt for every thing which bears the character of virtue, — if these be strong marks of a depraved and degenerate people, Upper Canada presents to the eye of a reflecting mind a melancholy picture. I came into the country with strong prepossessions in favour of the character of its inhabitants; but I soon discovered, to my infinite disgust, that they were more depraved in their morals, more profligate in their manners, and more graceless in their general deportment, than any other people upon earth with whom I was acquainted.'

As

As "evil communications corrupt good manners," it may well be feared that emigrants to Canada from Europe soon catch the moral infection; and Mr. T. confesses that, of the two hundred persons who went out with his father, forming a company of as upright and unimpeachable Christians as he ever knew, with only two or three exceptions, they have all degenerated into the most profane and vicious course of life. It should be observed, however, that it is of Upper Canada that the author has drawn a picture so degrading to human nature, which is strikingly contrasted with that of the Lower Province: for he says, distinctly, that he has found among the *uneducated* inhabitants of Lower Canada more real happiness, more true politeness, greater reverence for religion, and a stronger attachment to each other, than among the inhabitants of any other country in which he has sojourned. Their habits are entirely agricultural, and 'he who is desirous of seeing rural life and rural felicity in their perfection would do well to become the inmate of a French Canadian's dwelling.' The lower Canadians are as contented, as social, as polite, as virtuous, and as religious, as the populace of the most enlightened nations. Like the lower classes in all countries in which the Catholic religion prevails, they perform all that their pastors require, (how painful soever it may be to flesh and blood,) with a fervor and devotedness which excites Mr. Talbot's admiration, — and our pity.

With regard to the United States, the author is perfectly *horrified* at the thoughts of breathing such a rebel atmosphere; and he wonders how any man who has lived in Great Britain or *Ireland* can reconcile it to his prudence or his patriotism to choose a residence in a *hostile* country, and become subject to the levelling laws of a republic, when he might enjoy privileges much more extensive in the British colonies, where land is not only cheaper but of superior fertility. The love of our country, however, is distinct from the love of its laws and institutions; and patriotism is not evinced by abusing the laws and institutions of another state, and loudly proclaiming the immaculateness of our own. He who has the misfortune to be born subject to the most despotic government on earth gives a less equivocal proof of his patriotism, by endeavoring to introduce the principles of liberty and justice, and laws which *level* all ranks only by denouncing the same punishments to the same offences without regard to persons, and which attribute equal rights and privileges to all, than he would give by insisting on the freedom of his own government from all abuse, and its superiority over every other in the world. Mr. Talbot entertains the most violent prejudices

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against

against the republican government of the United States, and says that he would for himself prefer the "bread of carefulness" in Canada to the cornucopia of the Union. This is a matter of fancy, and "every one to his taste:"—but why call America a hostile country;—why deride and speak contumeliously of laws which were not made for him, with which he is not concerned, but which give protection, liberty, and satisfaction to all those who *are* concerned with them? Mr. T. speaks his mind, however, honestly and fearlessly. He commenced his tour through the United States, indeed, as if it had been a journey through the country of the Anthropophagi: but his prejudices evidently abated as he went along, for he found the Americans not altogether so brutal as he expected; they were even courteous and civil, and he fairly acknowledges it. Moreover, their spirited exertions for the improvement of their country extort his admiration; while he hangs down his head in shame and sorrow at the contrast which such conduct opposes to the indolence and sluggishness of the Canadians.

We have not yet said a word about Lieutenant Morgan's pocket-volume, his 'Emigrant's Note-Book and Guide to Canada:' but it is because we have not much to remark in its favor that we have left it to the last. It is, in part, a compilation from calendars, gazetteers, and tourists, plentifully sprinkled with the *facetiæ* of Uncle Toby and Corporal Trim, and enlivened with the author's professional adventures. Mr. Morgan is not without his prejudices also against the political constitution of the United States; and he believes that very few, except such as have been deceived by the grossest misrepresentations, would array themselves under a foreign state, or 'add to her strength in peace by their industrious efforts.' We hope, with him, that no Englishman, in the event of a war between the two powers, would take the field under American banners: but we have yet to learn that the industry of our countrymen exerted abroad is injurious to us at home. Mr. M. was on service in our late war in America; and having remained in the Canadas a considerable time, he was so pleased with the country, that he resolved to settle with his family on the tract of land to which he is intitled by the government-regulations. This project, however, is not yet carried into execution; and to while away his time till the ensuing season, he employed himself in digesting into the shape of a narrative the rough notes, memorandums, and recollections of dates, distances, and events, with which he had stoned his trunk and his mind. He has very kindly feelings towards the Americans, and in three or four anecdotes has done himself honor in shewing that he can appreciate the virtues of
and humanity as highly in an enemy as a friend.

That

That he is a meritorious officer we have no doubt: but so many ampler and more instructive accounts of Canada have been published, that we cannot conscientiously enforce a recommendation of the present in preference to them, except for its brevity. Some inaccuracies of language, and errors in the spelling of proper names, (such as, p. vi., 'Diamede' for *Diomedes*, and 'Nemisses' for *Nemesis*;—p. xvi., 'Cuirasseurs' for *Cuirassiers*;—p. 256., 'Neried' for *Nereide*, &c.) evince a want of care either in the author or his printer.

ART. XII. *Principles of warming and ventilating Public Buildings, Dwelling-Houses, Manufactories, Hospitals, Hot-Houses, Conservatories, &c.*; and of constructing Fire-Places, Boilers, Steam-Apparatus, Grates, and Drying Rooms, &c. &c. &c. By Thomas Tredgold, Civil Engineer, &c. 8vo. pp. 300., and Nine Plates. 15s. Boards. Taylor. 1824.

IT appears that, in the pursuit of his profession as an architect and civil engineer, Mr. Tredgold's attention was particularly directed to that part of it which relates to the management of heat; an inquiry of very considerable importance, not only in different manufactories but in the comfort and economy of private life. Count Rumford may be said to have been almost the first philosopher who undertook to examine scientifically the management of heat with reference to domestic economy; and much has now been effected in this respect through his example. The dimensions of our fire-places are now much less than formerly; a more uniform temperature is obtained with a less expence of fuel; and the numerous patents for particular constructions of stoves, grates, ranges, and all cooking apparatus, prove at least that the inquiry is one which opens a large field for speculation, as well as for improvement. It is not, however, to this department of the subject that Mr. Tredgold has devoted the principal strength of his mind, although he has not permitted it to pass unnoticed: but his views of the question are more general, and are principally directed to the modern system of heating by flues, steam-pipes, &c., as in churches, manufactories, hospitals, green-houses, and the halls and other apartments of private mansions. His book is divided into twelve chapters, of which the first treats of the advantages and disadvantages of different methods of distributing heat, and their effects on the quality of the air. Excluding those which are injurious, four remain to be particularly examined; that is, by open fires, by steam, by the cockle, and by flued stoves with a surface of limited temperature. The second

chapter is allotted to the properties of different kinds of fuel, as coals of various districts, coke, charcoal, wood, peat, &c., and their respective effects in generating heat. The third discusses the effect of steam in distributing heat, and the quantity of fuel that will produce a given effect in warming rooms, &c. Here the laws of cooling are given in a practical form, by data derived from original experiments; and also the ratio of the effect of different surfaces: with rules for proportioning the surface of steam-pipe, and for finding the quantity of fuel requisite to supply a pipe of given dimensions. Chapter iv. relates to the subject of ventilation, and the quantity of it that is necessary to preserve the air of rooms, &c. fit for the purposes of respiration; with the means of effecting it in various circumstances and situations. The fifth is devoted to practical and theoretical details on the construction of boilers for generating steam, their fire-places, and apparatus. The sixth is appropriated to the description of various modes of distributing steam, and considerations relative to the form, connection, &c. of pipes and vessels; with the means of confining heat in mains or conducting pipes. In the seventh chapter, the principles already developed are applied to practical cases of warming and ventilating dwelling-houses, churches, schools, lecture-rooms, theatres, cotton-mills, and work-rooms: while the eighth treats of a like application to hospitals and houses of equal temperature. Chapter ix. relates to the formation of stoves for plants, forcing houses, green-houses, conservatories, &c.; and the tenth, to the construction and proportions of grates and open fire-places. The eleventh treats of drying by steam, the construction of drying rooms, and the effect that may be produced whether applied on a large scale, as in manufactories, or on a smaller, as in private houses. The last chapter supplies a brief sketch of certain hypothetical ideas relative to the nature of light and heat.

Having thus given an abstract of the contents of this volume, we shall now examine its execution. Mr. Tredgold's name must be already familiar to our readers, as we have had occasion in two or three instances to notice his highly useful labors in works connected with architecture and civil engineering. Our report on his "*Principles of Carpentry*" will be found in our xcvith vol. p. 383., and the account of his "*Treatise on the Strength of Cast Iron*" in vol. c. p. 398.; which latter has since passed to a second edition, very considerably extended and improved. In our notice of that book, we predicted for it a favorable reception, not only with practical but with theoretical men; and we are pleased

to find, by the early appearance of the second edition; that our prediction has been verified. In its present form, it is certainly a highly valuable performance; containing a larger collection of data and practical rules, than any work that we know on this or a similar subject in any language. Mr. T. has also recently published a new and enlarged edition of Buchanan's "Treatise on Mill-Work;" in which he has likewise had an opportunity of bringing into action the happy combination of practical and theoretical knowledge which he possesses, and of rendering a very ingenious but rather obscure production both popular and interesting.

We shall select the second chapter of the present treatise for our extracts and remarks, as being on a subject of general interest, and the most readily illustrated without the aid of diagrams.

The first question to be considered, in the application of heat, is the nature of the fuel best suited for the specific purpose contemplated. When an intense heat is either to be produced for a short time or to be sustained with great energy, it is always found necessary to employ fuel in its natural state: but a regular heat is best obtained with prepared fuel, such as coke, charcoal, &c. In some instances, we want an intense heat for a certain time, and then a regular and more moderate heat, as in the case of the boiler for a steam-engine; when it is best to begin the operation with one description of fuel and to proceed with another. — In every case, however, one fundamental datum is requisite; namely, to be well informed on the properties of all the different descriptions of fuel, and their heating powers relatively to each other. Of course, this can be found only by experiment; and even experiment, without some great principle of comparison, would be futile. In most experiments on fuel, the number of pounds of ice which a given quantity of fuel is capable of melting, has been ascertained; and when such trials are made with great precision, the whole quantity of heat that a given portion of fuel will afford may be more nearly ascertained by this than by any other method. We may, however, obtain the comparison in other terms, by considering that, according to Dr. Black, the latent heat of water is 140° ; and, therefore, that the fuel necessary to convert a cubic foot of ice into water would raise the temperature of water from any given state to another 140° higher: or that 140 times the fuel that will raise a cubic foot 1° will melt a like quantity of ice, or $62\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. — Therefore, without reference to the quantity of ice melted, we may make our comparison by the amount of fuel that is necessary to raise a cubic foot of
water

water 1° ; or that is requisite to convert a cubic foot of water into steam, which latter is the specific measure adopted by Mr. Tredgold. He says:

' I take, as the measure of the effect of a fuel, the quantity, in pounds avoirdupois, which will raise the temperature of a cubic foot of water 1° of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

' And since the boiling-point, or 212° , is 180° above the freezing-point, the quantity of fuel that will heat a cubic foot of water 1° , being multiplied by 180, gives the quantity that would make a cubic foot of ice-cold water boil.

' And, in like manner, by taking the difference between 212° , and the actual temperature of the water when supplied to the boiler, and multiplying the quantity of fuel that will heat a cubic foot of water 1° , this difference gives the quantity of fuel that will make the water boil. When the water is at the mean temperature, or 52° , then the difference is 160° , and it only requires seven-eighths of the quantity that would boil ice-cold water.

' Also the fuel that will convert a cubic foot of boiling water into steam will be found by multiplying the latent heat of steam by the quantity of fuel that will heat a cubic foot of water 1° . Dr. Ure, from some accurate experiments, found the latent heat of steam to be 967° ; therefore, multiplying the quantity of fuel that will heat a cubic foot of water 1° , by 967, will give the quantity that is required to convert boiling-hot water into steam.

' But when the whole quantity of fuel is required which would convert water into steam from the mean temperature, or 52° , then add 160 to 967, which makes 1127, and multiply the quantity of fuel that would heat a cubic foot of water 1° by 1127, and the product will be the quantity of fuel in lbs. that would convert a cubic foot of water into steam from the mean temperature. Dividing 1127 by 160, the quotient is 7 nearly; consequently, 7 times the quantity of fuel that will boil a given quantity of water from the mean temperature will convert the same quantity of water into steam.'

Having thus pointed out the principle which he has adopted for measuring the effect of heat, the author proceeds to examine the properties of different descriptions of fuel, and gives the analysis of several varieties of fossil-coal; particularly those that are known under the denomination of Caking Coal, Splint Coal, Cherry Coal, and Cannel Coal. He then makes similar deductions with reference to different sorts of wood, peat, charcoal, &c.; and the several results being drawn into the form of a table at the conclusion of the work, we extract it, conceiving that it will be found interesting to many of our readers.

A Table,

' A Table, showing the Quantity of Fuel that will heat a Cubic Foot of Water One Degree; and the Quantity that will convert a Cubic Foot of Water into Steam.

Kind of Fuel.	Quantity in lbs. that will heat One Cubic Foot of Water One Degree.	Quantity in lbs. that will convert One Cubic Foot of Water into Steam.
Newcastle coal (caking coal)	0.0075	8.4
Splint coal, nearly the same.		
Staffordshire coal (Cherry coal)	0.0100	11.2
Wood (dry pine) - - -	0.0172	19.25
— (dry beech) - - -	0.0242	27.0
— (dry oak) - - -	0.0265	30.0
Peat (of good quality) - -	0.0475	53.6
Charcoal - - - - -	0.0095	10.6
Coke - - - - -	0.0069	7.7
Charred Peat - - - - -	0.0205	23.0

' A bushel of Newcastle coals is usually estimated at 84 lbs., and a cubic foot is about 50 lbs.; a cubic foot of solid coal is 79.3 lbs. A London chaldron is 36 bushels, and weighs about 28 cwt. A Newcastle chaldron is about 53 cwt.'

It is by no means an uncommon practice to expose coals to the weather, or to throw water on them when kept in a dry shed or cellar, with the view of improving their burning: but this is a vulgar error, and is very properly deprecated by Mr. Tredgold; who remarks:

' Whatever kind of fuel it may be considered best to employ, it is extremely desirable that it should be as dry as possible, otherwise a great part of the heat it contains will be lost in converting the water in the fuel into vapour; which of course escapes up the chimney without producing any useful effect. It was Count Rumford, I think, who first noticed the loss of effect by employing moist fuel; and it is the more necessary to point out this circumstance to the notice of my readers, because fuel is often unnecessarily exposed to the weather, or put in wet places; and the injurious effect of introducing damp into a close fire-place is never considered.'

The practical nature of the discussions maintained in several of the subsequent chapters, and the constant reference to the figures given in the well executed plates at the end of the volume, prevent us from following the author through this part of his work.

Among the more popular applications of steam, one we think is particularly deserving of attention; viz. the plan for a private family's drying closet: its form is very simple; and we are

are persuaded that it would be found highly convenient and economical.

‘ In order to illustrate the application of this mode of drying, the construction of a closet to dry linen for a family is shewn in Plate VI. It is intended to have two horses, one of which will contain a sufficient quantity of linen, &c. to require about an hour to dry them; but when the first is about half dry, (which it will be in about twenty minutes,) another quantity should be put in upon the other horse. By this mode of changing them alternately, so that a fresh portion may be put in when the former charge is half dried, there will be a considerable saving of fuel as well as of time.

‘ The horses move upon rollers; and when a horse is drawn out to the extent, the end closes the aperture, and prevents the escape of heated air.

‘ By adopting this mode of drying, those who are engaged in managing the process are not at all incommoded by the heat, or by the steam from the wet cloth; a much less quantity of fuel is required, and much less space to produce the same effect.

‘ For domestic purposes, there will be quite as little expense in fitting up an apparatus of this kind as the commonest in use. One of the boilers in the wash-house will answer as a steam-boiler, without rendering it the less fit for other purposes; those heavy and dangerous frames usually employed to hang the clothes upon will not be at all wanted; nor nearly so large a room for a laundry.

‘ And it is not an inconsiderable recommendation to this plan, that an immense quantity of fresh air will have to pass through among the linen while it is drying, which must render it more pure and fit for use.’

The author likewise observes that

‘ Steam-heat may be employed with advantage in drying *grain*, in *malting*, in drying *hops*, in drying *paper*, *gunpowder*, and other manufactured goods, &c.

‘ Steam may also be employed for drying peat for fuel; so that its preparation may not be confined to that part of summer when labour is most valuable.

‘ But there is a new and more important application to be considered; for in all districts where fuel is cheap, steam may be used with perfect safety to dry corn, in case of a wet harvest. An apparatus for this purpose would not be expensive, and would soon repay for the construction; a boiler and steam-pipes would form the chief part of the things wanted, in addition to what is usually to be found in any farm-yard. Hurdles would serve to spread the sheaves upon, and these might be laid horizontally upon cross-bars, or poles, at about 18 or 20 inches apart. Tarpaulins, or winnowing sheets, would serve to enclose the space through which the heated air should ascend, and circulate among the sheaves; and afterwards go out at the roof of the barn, or other building where
the

the drying is conducted. A malt kiln with a steam apparatus would make an excellent place for drying corn in a wet season; and I have no doubt, that in many districts the use of artificial heat will increase, and the loss of much valuable grain be prevented. Besides, with the knowledge that he can save his corn in good condition in a bad season, the farmer will have a mind more at ease: he becomes secure of that, which, in the ordinary course, is very frequently most seriously injured, and sometimes altogether lost. He may also turn the same contrivances to advantage in a wet hay harvest, and temporary erections will soon be changed for more permanent ones. The certainty of artificial heat will be to the farmer as important as the certainty of power is to the sailor; and those two classes of men, who have hitherto depended more than any other on seasons, will both receive great benefit by the application of steam.

It is not farmers alone that will be benefited by drying corn artificially in backward and wet seasons; for in such cases, the whole population must feel the good effect of this plan. Unsound grain makes very indifferent bread, doctor it as you like; and the evil is too frequently a very general one.

We must not omit to notice the last chapter, on the 'Nature of Heat.' This the author wishes to derive from an uniform and universal elastic fluid, diffused throughout all nature; which, when acting under great intensity, produces light, and, when in great quantity but with little intensity, produces heat.

'If two bodies,' he observes, 'be suspended in equilibrium in an elastic fluid, their surfaces will be every where pressed with the same force. But if a disturbing force causes these bodies to approach one another, the portion of the fluid between the bodies must necessarily require force to displace it, and consequently exert a pressure on the opposing surfaces, while there must be an equal diminution of pressure on opposite ones. Now, if all space be filled with caloric, the mutual attraction of the earth and sun must cause an increased action of caloric on their opposing surfaces, and hence we have the phenomena of light and heat on that side of the earth which is next the sun, while, on the opposite side, a diminished pressure of caloric is the cause of darkness and loss of heat; for a disturbance of equilibrium by diminishing the pressure must be attended with a loss of caloric, and the contrary effect must be a consequence of increased pressure, where all natural bodies are capable of absorbing the pressing fluid. And it appears to be the increased pressure of caloric which acts on our organs of sight, and renders objects visible. We may be said to feel distant objects by the intervention of an elastic fluid, whenever the sun's force increases its density in the atmosphere; and this must happen, notwithstanding air or other grosser matter may occupy part of the space, whenever that matter is so constituted that the fluid caloric can freely pervade its pores.'

'If

' If we carefully distinguish between intensity of action and quantity of action, we shall find no difficulty in making the distinction between light and heat. It appears that a certain degree of intensity of development is necessary to cause the phenomena of light, and that whatever quantity of fluid be acted upon, if the intensity be less than this degree, it will only cause the phenomena of heat; while great intensity and small quantity afford the phenomena of light without much heat. We may conclude that this medium called caloric is universally diffused, and that in virtue of it we see the moon, the planets, and the fixed stars.

' Also, since when heat is forced into bodies by the mutual attractions of the earth and sun, it does not and cannot immediately quit them as soon as the action has ceased; and as the expansion of the atmosphere must differ considerably on the eastern and western sides of a meridian on which the sun is vertical, may not this inequality be sufficient to cause the earth's diurnal motion ?

We confess that this hypothesis appears to us to be wholly untenable. In the first place, the pressure on such an elastic fluid would not be in the line joining the earth and the sun, but in the direction of the tangent of the earth's orbit; or in that of the resultant of the two forces by which its orbicular motion is maintained. We must ask, also, why does not the moon yield heat as well as light; and why do we not see its dark side; or, rather, why one side is dark at the time of a new moon? With respect, also, to the cause of the diurnal rotation as above stated, would not such a cause produce an accelerated motion of rotation? Unless these and some other doubtful points connected with the hypothesis can be clearly explained, we suspect that this doctrine will not be able to stand its ground against philosophical tests. At present, therefore, we cannot subscribe to Mr. Tredgold's theory on the nature or cause of light and heat: but we most willingly bear testimony to his great practical skill and knowledge in the management of it; and to the ingenuity and perspicuity with which this work, like its predecessors, has been executed. It is principally designed for the use of practical engineers and architects: but it may be read with interest, and advantage, by every man of a philosophical and inquiring mind.

ART. XIII. *The Village Grammar-School, and other Poems.* By Thomas Maude, Esq. A.B., Oxon. 8vo. pp. 74. Hatchards. 1824.

To record our early recollections is a pleasing task, though not unmixed with melancholy, for the melancholy itself is not unpleasing; and the cares and anguish of the present,

from which all of us are glad to escape, give to the past the greater part of that hue and coloring in which fancy and poetry delight to pourtray them. If, indeed, those days which we regret when we contrast them with the present could be brought back, or the whole sum of their joys be analytically examined, perhaps they would be found to have their due portion of human griefs and sufferings annexed to them: but childhood, because it is the most thoughtless, is so far the happiest æra of the little span of existence that is allowed us. It is at this period that we have not learned the art of arranging, systematizing, and calling up in review our cares and solitudes; and all that we feel is the sorrow of the passing moment which flies away along with it. We have not then arrived at the perspicacity which sees, through the mist of interposing years, the ambushed evils that lie in wait for us, and the prediction of which embitters the enjoyment or aggravates the ills of the day that is present to us.

“ Seeing aright, we see our woes.
Then what avails it to have eyes;
From ignorance our blessing flows,
The only wretched are the wise.” (PRIOR.)

No wonder, therefore, that we recur to school-times and school-recollections with so much satisfaction as most of us experience. They form also the most agreeable themes for poetic description; and if the topics are selected with taste, and the powers of the writer are adequate to do them justice, they rarely fail of administering great delight to others. Mr. Maude has stated the case ably, we think, in his preface to ‘*The Village Grammar-School*,’ which, as it is an agreeable specimen of easy and unaffected writing, we insert entire.

‘ When in the following epistle I exhibit my mind recurring with delight to those earlier years of my boyhood, which were passed at Ovingham, a secluded village grammar-school in the county of Northumberland, I wish it to be remembered, that I am speaking of a remote village-school, where the restrictions are less distressing than they necessarily are in town-schools, — where all surrounding objects (of natural scenery) are more cheerful and delightfully exhilarating, — and where, particularly to a young heart, the external incidents are more touchingly impressive, — certainly more simple.

‘ At Ovingham we lived in rustic simplicity among rustics, many of whom we were taught to respect, and whose language (not unlike the Lowland Scotch) became in a manner familiar to us. To this I attribute not only the perfect facility with which I now read and understand the Northern Wizard’s most Scottish and vernacular productions, but also the tone of mental feeling
— (some-

— (something “like the remembered tone of a mute lyre,”) — which enables me to appreciate the spirit of Scottish romance, and which to my ear throws a charm over the language of Robert Burns.

‘But, after all, I do not so much contend, that even a school-life like my own at Ovingham is at the time delightful *per se*, as that the matured mind, after the lapse of years, looks back on that season with melancholy pleasure. It is unquestionably the season of innocent hope and acute sense of pure gratification; and none, I think, will here dissent from my opinion, excepting those — (no fair judges) — whose misfortune it has been to have been unblest in their parents and preceptors.’

In point of poetry, however, we are not of opinion that Mr. Maude has attained much elevation of thinking or of painting. Yet there is an ethical propriety, a correctness of feeling, in the following lines, that reminds us in many respects of Cowper :

‘Something we’ve gained in bliss since boyhood’s day, —
 But careless confidence is worn away.
 Now we have learned mistrust; for who can see
 His manhood’s noon, and all confiding be?
 We’ve witnessed (thanks to Heaven! we have not proved)
 The faithlessness of hearts too dearly loved!
 We’ve witnessed (*I have felt*) the bitter hate
 Which in weak bosoms envy can create;
 We’ve witnessed kind professions, kindly made,
 To hearts, when credulous, at once betray’d;
 We’ve witnessed fraud in bosoms seeming just; —
 And thus, in the world’s school, we’ve learned mistrust.
 ‘Ah! truth severe! — In this so transient scene,
 Where, mid joy’s sunshine, clouds still intervene,
 Shall enmity’s factitious load oppress
 The fellow-pilgrims of the wilderness?
 The chart of life is but a chequered span, —
 And the grave closes every path to man:
 To pleasure’s victim, and to glory’s slave,
 Yes, there’s *one* goal, — illumed by hope, — the grave!
 All reach it soon; but some achieve the race
 While youth’s bright dawn yet lightens o’er the face,
 And hope is winged! — Woe’s me! the funeral cry
 Strikes my sad heart, while sorrow palls mine eye!
 Now wherefore should I tune my lyre? for she,
 Whose kinder ear had loved its melody,
 Sleeps in the grave, — the beautiful, the young, —
 Quenched the bright eye, and silenced the sweet tongue!
 Oh Eloisa! sainted spirit! — I see
 Thy narrow bed, and weep, remembering thee!
 Who would forbid the muse to mourn thy doom,
 While heart-wrung tears flow gushing o’er thy tomb?
 — When

— When last I saw thee, dear departed one !
 Youth's sparkling life in every feature shone ;
 And o'er thy sylphic form and Grecian face
 Beamed the mild lustre of attractive grace.
 Then, in a pensive (yet not joyless) hour,
 Thee once I likened to a token-flower : —
 I saw thee, fairest ! in the flush of youth,
 And sang, — ('twas but a common-place of truth ;
 How cruelly true !) — “ thy life is of a day,” —
 And thou art wither'd, like the rose, away !
 Ah ! thou wert good as lovely ! But 'tis o'er —
 Thy soul shall speak from beauteous dust no more :
 Thy sweet form lieth beneath the unheeded sod,
 Cold and corrupted, — but thy soul's with God !
 Henry ! forgive, — forgive the bursting tear,
 Which, as I write, bedews an angel's bier !
 Forgive the grief commingling with my strain, —
 Can the heart ever plead to speak in vain ?

Of the other poems we shall say little, for they are not highly finished, nor happily executed.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR OCTOBER, 1824.

POETRY.

Art. 14. *The Pleasures of Society* ; a Poem. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Rivingtons. 1824.

This is the production of an elegant and cultured mind ; — a mind that can feel justly, and describe as well as decorate what it feels. The versification is the sterling English couplet, to which we have given the name of heroic ; — that which was cast in the vigorous mould of Dryden, and finished by the more patient toil and the smoother hand of Pope. We were much pleased with the elegance of the subsequent lines :

‘ Yon infant group of laughing infants see,
 The playful romp, the blithe and social glee ;
 Or mimic nurses, in fantastic dress,
 Deck the loved doll, and give the fond caress ;
 In social circle sit, and gaily spread
 The broken glass, the gaudy china-shred ;
 The polished dishes in long order shine,
 Dinner and rich dessert, and sparkling wine !
 The banquet done, the table now withdrawn,
 They scamper lightly o'er the velvet lawn,
 With tiny footsteps print the velvet green,
 Giving fresh beauty to the loveliest scene.

REV. OCT. 1824.

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Who

' Who sees not here God's all-directing will ?
 Sucklings and babes the social end fulfil ;
 He guides the infant in his frolic play,
 Collects the group and points the sunny way,
 Where love and innocence their steps beguile,
 Tint the warm cheek and wake the dimpled smile.
 ' As infant years, in silent lapse, advance,
 And, light of heart, they lead the mazy dance,
 The social feeling still exerts its power,
 And seeks the pleasure of the long-wished hour,
 When equal friends, from crabbed lesson free,
 Lilly's dry page, or puzzling Rule of Three !
 Assemble gladly to the music's sound,
 While the sly trick and artless laugh go round ;
 With gay delight each little bosom swells,
 The sparkling eye the joyous feeling tells,
 Friendship and love commence their lasting reign,
 And future suffering loses half its pain,
 When fond remembrance tells when bliss began,
 The social infant now the social man.'

The ensuing picture is beautifully drawn, and fills us with images of love and of home :

' Storms are abroad, and Winter holds his sway
 O'er nature's scenes, and short the gloomy day ;
 To smiling hearth, where sparkling faggots burn,
 To fire-side chair and home-delights we turn ;
 Our own loved circle, and the well-known guest,
 Mirth in the eye, and sunshine in the breast,
 Close round the hearth, and talk the time away
 Of deeds long past, in time's far distant day ;
 Of early scenes, when Christmas-time drew near,
 We hourly watched the slow-departing year ;
 Chide the dull moments as they glided by,
 And dashed the tear-drop from the sparkling eye,
 To think how soon a parent's kiss to share,
 A father's blessing, a fond mother's prayer.

' What hour so dear, when social winters call
 Within the warm and hospitable hall ?
 When ready welcome every guest partakes,
 And gay good-nature each fond wish awakes,
 The grey-haired grandsire sees around him stand,
 Joyous and light of heart, a youthful band ;
 They o'er their festive sports in order run,
 Their playful pastime, and their school-boy fun ;
 Recount their games, and he has played them all,
 The manly cricket, and the flying ball ;
 Tell him of famed events in days of yore,
 And wondrous tales, which he has told before ;
 Paint every simple scene of early youth,
 In all the colours of unvarnished truth,

'Till tears of gladness fill the old man's eye,
 To see these pledges of affection nigh;
 He hears the story of their cloudless day,
 'Till age forgets how time has flown away,
 Lives o'er the past, and feels again the power
 Of buoyant spirits in the spring-time hour.
 The social board, without profusion decked,
 No prudent mirth, or cheerful spirits checked;
 Whilst all to chaste and mild politeness true,
 Freedom of converse, with good sense pursue,
 Give to the King and friends a toast of love,
 Nor blush to ask a blessing from above.'

Though the topics chosen by the author for his illustration of social happiness are not very new or striking, he has done justice to them in the feeling and good taste with which he has expressed them. The cloistered nun has been often commiserated by poetry, but never perhaps in better verse than in these lines:

' The cloistered arch and grated window view,
 Ask if that cold, relentless faith be true,
 Which teaches man from social life to fly,
 Like the proud Levite, sternly passing by
 A wounded brother, in the stormy day,
 Nor stops to wipe one bitter tear away.
 He, who, in mercy, came mankind to save
 From sin, and death, and terrors of the grave,
 Taught not seclusion from the various strife
 And man's deep suffering in the vale of life;
 Taught not devotion which, in formal prayer,
 Breathes but the frenzied accents of despair,
 Nor turns to Heaven that female's languid eye
 Whilst sorrowing sisters weep, in anguish, by.
 She, the pale victim of mistaken zeal,
 When first her youthful bosom knew to feel,
 Bright as the morning star, began the day,
 And, at the coming of the golden ray
 Of that grand orb, which wakes the world to love,
 Hailed the sweet mercies of her God above.

' Now to the sullen sound of cloister-bell,
 Wakes but to weep, and daily sorrows tell;
 Recalls the promise made, the solemn vow,
 Then half-extorted, oft-lamented now!
 Thro' the long aisle, by yon dim taper's light,
 Turns she to pray, in solemn hour of night:
 In broken murmurs her sad prayer dies,
 Unbidden thoughts of former scenes arise,
 Contrast the death-like silence of the tomb,
 The low-roofed chapel, and the damp cell's gloom,
 With Heaven's bright sky, and brilliant pomp of day,
 O'er flowery meads or dew-bespangled way,
 When, light of heart, with loved companions by,
 Health tinged her cheek and sparkled in her eye.

' Ah! why to youth and innocence denied,
 The balm of Spring, or Summer's purple pride!
 Autumn's rich harvest clothes the golden fields,
 And social winter many a pastime yields;
 Free as the frolic air, we rove around
 The mountain's side, and catch the liquid sound
 Of nature's music, in the morn of day,
 And to great nature's God the grateful homage pay.
 Fountain of social bliss! thy mercies rise
 Wide as the earth, and boundless as the skies!
 Ungrateful man rejects the gracious love,
 Which thy blest Son, descending from above,
 Gave to the poorest pilgrim of the earth,
 And changed his moan of woe to peaceful mirth,
 Raised soft emotions in his willing breast,
 Love's purest sunshine, and life's social rest.'

We cannot take leave of this amiable and pleasing writer without warm commendations of the style and spirit of his composition. It bespeaks the good man and the scholar; and we were perhaps the more pleased with it for its exemption from the peculiarities of the disciples of the modern school, whom he has virtually shewn that he can rightly appreciate by regulating at a far different standard both his thoughts and his diction, and following purer and better models of each.

EDUCATION.

Art. 15. *Remarks on Female Education*, adapted particularly to the Regulation of Schools. 12mo. pp. 393. 5s. 6d. Boards. Holdsworth.

Although this volume is written in a style rather unsuitably pompous, and not always exact, it contains many excellent observations, which seem to be the result of experience operating on a sound judgment. We quote a part of the remarks on praise, as a fair specimen:

' Praise should be reserved for conduct entitled to unqualified approbation, and for performances of more than ordinary merit. To be judicious, praise must always be moderate; to be valuable, it must be rare. It will of course be estimated by the exertion necessary to obtain it; and, while children thus learn to set a just value on well-earned praise, they naturally despise it when indiscriminate, or too freely bestowed. And a portion of their contempt will be sometimes extended to the persons from whom they receive it. A calm approbation, and gentle encouragement of every effort to attain moral or intellectual improvement, united with affectionate and unvarying confidence, will have a more salutary effect on the youthful mind, than frequent praise, and will generally prove a sufficient incentive to exertion. And when the benefit of such exertion has been felt; when habits of application, or of self-command, are actually formed; and the progress of improvement is once become apparent; this experience of success

cess

afford in itself the strongest possible inducement to per-
 , and additional incitements will seldom be required.
 exclusion of praise from any system of moral discipline
 however be attempted. It will often be found beneficial,
 times even necessary; nor will praise ever become posi-
 rious, when judiciously adapted to the character and
 nces of the individual on whom it is bestowed. The
 pirit occasionally requires a powerful stimulus. They
 timid and diffident of their own abilities, even to de-
 y, need a warmth of encouragement which would be
 prejudicial to the forward and presuming. That mind,
 which habitually requires some extraordinary incentive
 n is far from being in a healthy state, and is in great
 ultimately sinking below its proper level in the scale of
 al and moral worth. It is of the utmost importance that
 id should be early accustomed to feel the influence, and
 he impulse, of ordinary motives. Those powers which
 orpid in the absence of extraordinary excitement, will
 permanently exerted to any profitable end.'

*Grammatical Parallel of the ancient and modern
 k languages*, translated from the modern Greek of
 ules vid, late of the Greek College at Scio. By John
 hell, ser in the Royal Navy, who served as Linguist in
 Fleet b, ading Toulon, and as Purser of the Centaur and
 spite, an f the Cornwallis in India. 12mo. 8s. Boards.
 k and Co. 1824.

s work is r a grammar of the modern Greek than 'a
 atical paral of the ancient and modern,' as the author
 es that his rea is acquainted with the antient Greek, and
 to him the tas making the parallel; supplying for that
 se only the req information relating to the modern
 age. The charae of M. Jules David stands high as an
 nder of the peculia of his countrymen;
 e translation before s in the language of his countrymen;
 g manner. Amid t executed in a creditable and unpre-
 ce excites in this counterest which the present state of
 hat he has not labored we hope that Mr. Mitchell may
 ent encouragement to ipn; and that he will meet with
 of some general dictionary um to proceed with a transla-
 language.

M E D I C

17. *The Pupil's Pharmacopœia*.
 the London Pharmacopœia, the Bing a literal Translation
 Italics, Word for Word; and the following the Original
 facilitate a proper Pronunciation. Text being marked
 hemical Decompositions are explaineditio to which, the
 f each Preparation. To the Whole is Note at the Foot
 ibiting, at one View, the Names of Med,ed a Table, ex-
 erties, Doses, and Antidotes, in Cases of F with their Pro-
 expressly for the Use of Students. By W. &c. Designed
 12mo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co, 15m, Surgeon.

We have no doubt that this small volume will be found especially useful to young men preparing for examination, who possess but a slender acquaintance with the Latin language; and we cannot hesitate to concur with the sentiment of the author that, 'when works of this kind have been written in a dead language, and couched, for the most part, in terms of modern invention, they cannot be rendered too *explanatory* to the junior part of the profession.'

Yet, notwithstanding what Mr. Maugham has said of the abilities of surgeons who were altogether deficient in classical acquirements, we think that it would be a valuable improvement to require, from all candidates for licences in any branch of the healing art, a competent knowledge of the Latin language; and, for this purpose, we would propose that a part of the examination should consist in construing and translating a passage from some of the easier Latin classics. Such an arrangement would satisfy the examiners respecting the proficiency of the individuals brought before them, and prevent the possibility of works like the present being employed as the means of communicating a semblance of attainments which the pupil actually did not possess.

Mr. Maugham has executed his task in a succinct and accurate manner; and he has produced a work which contains, besides the mere translation of the *Pharmacopœia*, a considerable portion of very useful information.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 18. *Corallina*: or, a Classical Arrangement of Flexible Coralline Polypidoms, selected from J. V. F. Lamouroux, D.E.S. 8vo. pp. 284. Sherwood and Co. 1824.

It is well known that M. Lamouroux devoted much of his time and attention to the study of marine polypi and their habitations; though more, perhaps, with a view to fix their nomenclature and arrangement, than to fix the habits and economy of the respective families. Unfortunatly, it has happened, too, that he has needlessly multiplied his new appellations, which savor of taste or of convenience. The more of pedantry than of by the Rev. Dr. Fleming, in his plan of distribution sketched at once more simple, and more accurate. "Philosophy of Zoology" contains of the greater number of students commodated to the class before us, however, appears to have executed her limited task with care and diligence; avowedly suppressing the Latin of learned and technical phraseology, all unnecessary to institute the new term *polypidom* for the French *polypier*.

Several preliminary notices contained in the present volume are not devoid of attraction to the general reader; and, those persons, who are desirous of prosecuting the subject, may possibly prefer a less complex and erudite manual.

manual. — In contrasting the dimensions of different descriptions of polypiferous bodies, the author, as if for the sake of stage-effect, confronts an almost invisible speck with tracts of madreporic islands: though the latter, he should recollect, are not the produce of a single animal, nor even of one generation of animals, but the accumulated fabrication of myriads of races, superadded to those of their countless ancestors.

The ensuing observations, prefixed to the exposition of the genus *Corallina*, are no unfavorable sample of the work.

‘ Plant-formed polypidom, articulated, branched, and trichotomous; axe or interior wholly composed of horny fibres; rind cretaceous and cellular; cells invisible to the naked eye.

‘ The ancient authors had united under the name of *Corallinas* all the flexible polypidoms, such as the sertularias, tubularias, &c. Later writers on the subject deemed it advisable to reserve this denomination for one order in this class of creation: but observing the various characters which accompanied this order, I have been induced to divide it into genera, and assign particularly to one genus the appellation of *Corallina*.

‘ The *Corallinas* of Europe have their polypean cells so very small, and so subject to obliteration, that it is not extraordinary they still remain undiscovered: in the equatorial seas the cells are much larger, and frequently visible to the naked eye.

‘ In rambling over the Calvados, (a range of rocks on the coast of Normandy,) I have frequently found a very large *Corallina*, a variety of the *C. officinalis*; it was covered with simple transparent filaments, a millimetre in length, which had a movement peculiar to themselves: they disappeared with the slightest agitation of the water, or when the polypidom was exposed to the air; in the latter case I was never able with the strongest magnifier to discover the slightest remains of these filaments, the point they had been attached to, or the cells they might have issued from, supposing them to have been polypi. This, however, remains doubtful, as it was only in spring I ever observed them, and then only on a few particular individuals: I never could discover them in winter.

‘ We frequently observe in the janias and *Corallinas* small globular bodies, more or less voluminous, and varying in their substance; the tubercles that are found on the amphiroas, the halimedes, the udoteas, and the melobesias, appear analogous. Ellis imagined them air-vessels to support them in the water; but these vesicles are rarely empty. I have frequently found them solid, or filled with small grains of an unknown nature. They are more probably ovaria, enclosing the germs of future polypidoms. All the flexible polypidoms appear thus to multiply.

‘ The polypidoms for which I have reserved the generic name of *Corallina*, have always articulated stems, more or less compressed, more or less branched, and constantly trichotomous. Their colours when fresh generally incline to red or purple; exposed a very short time to the action of air, light, and humidity, they display a variety of hues, each more brilliant than the other,

from the lightest or the brightest rose to a dull brown, or greenish, or only with a tinge of red. Infinite gradations are observed: but they all bleach by the action of the atmospheric fluids.

The polypidoms of this genus are found in all latitudes, in all depths, and on all the coasts of the five divisions of the world. They are, however, observed to be larger in the equatorial seas, more brilliant in their hues, and more elegant in their form. Fixed usually on rocks, or other hard and almost immovable bodies, they resist the influence of the waves, and are very rarely cast upon the shores. Only one or two species of *Corallinas* are parasites on the thalassiphytes, whilst nearly the whole of the *janias* are found upon these vegetables.

The *Corallinas* vary but little in their height; they sometimes exceed a decimetre, but are in general less: I, however, never met with any under two centimetres.

The *Corallina officinalis* was formerly used as an anthelmintic, or destroyer of worms, and absorbent; but in the beginning of the eighteenth century it seemed nearly to have fallen into disuse: at a later period it was again brought into vogue from the reputation of the fucus helminthochorton, vulgarly called Moss of Corsica, whose properties seem to be of the same nature.

A very good analysis of the *Corallina officinalis*, such as it is found in the shops and in collections, has been given by M. Bouvier of Marseilles: he found the component parts of a thousand grains to be —

	Grains.
Marine salt	10
Gelatine	66
Albumen	64
Sulphate of lime	19
Silex	7
Iron	2
Phosphate of lime	3
Magnesia	23
Lime	420
Carbonic acid combined with lime	196
Carbonic acid combined with magnesia	51
Water	141
	<u>1002</u>

This analysis does not essentially differ from that of the moss of Corsica.

M. Lamouroux has properly included in his enumeration such species as have been recognized in Australasia and the islands of the South Seas, as well as several which have been found only in a fossil state. In some of the families, as the warty *Gorgonias* and *Primnoa lepadifera*, he seems to have ascertained that the small projections, formerly conceived to be the cells, are the real polypi; and, in conformity with recent opinions, of some weight, he has transferred the fresh-water *Ephydatias* to the animal kingdom, ranking them immediately before the sponges: but few of his remarks can lay claim to much originality.

To

To the text, which is neatly printed, are subjoined 19 lithographic plates, representing some of the more rare or singular species.

TRAVELS.

- Art. 19. *Tour on the Continent*, in France, Switzerland, and Italy, in the Years 1817 and 1818. By Roger Hog, Esq., Author of "*Adelaide de Grammont*," and Poems. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Whittakers. 1824.

We can imagine no valid reason for this publication, which is neither very interesting nor particularly useful, especially after its numerous competitors. It is merely a rapid itinerary, without the requisite minuteness of that description of books, and therefore offers as little amusement to the reader as it can afford advantage to the traveller. Mr. Hog seems to write at his ease, and gives to his composition that colloquial form which is so unjustifiably adopted by many authors, as if they were talking to a companion: such as, 'on entering the church, *you* are struck by its beauty,' &c.

MISCELLANEOUS.

- Art. 20. *An Enquiry into the Accordancy of War with the Principles of Christianity*, and an Examination of the Philosophical Reasoning by which it is defended: with Observations on some of the Causes of War, and on some of its Effects. 8vo. pp. 161. 5s. Boards. Printed at Exeter, and sold in London by Longman and Co. 1823.

This inquiry is conceived in the most benevolent spirit, and written with great temper and moderation: the evils inseparable from a state of warfare are set forth in a very clear and forcible manner; and the frame of mind inculcated by our Saviour, in his sermon on the Mount, is contrasted with those feelings of violence which *must* characterize a course of hostilities. The author thinks that war is not justifiable even for the purpose of self-defence; and he instances the example of the Pennsylvanians, who subsisted for more than seventy years among six Indian nations without so much as a militia for their protection: their persons remaining unmolested, and their territories sacred, while the neighbouring states were involved in constant war with the savage tribes.

We extract the following remark in the author's own words:

'It were to no purpose to say, in opposition to the evidence of these facts, that the North American savage spared the Quakers because he previously knew that they were an unoffending people, or because the Quakers had previously gained the love of the Indians by kindness and good offices:—we concede all this; it is the very argument which we maintain. We say that an uniform undeviating regard to the peaceable obligations of Christianity becomes the safeguard of those who practise it. I do not say that if a people, in the customary state of men's passions, should be assailed by an invader, and should, on a sudden, choose to declare that they would try whether Providence would protect them,—of such a people, I do not say that they would experience protection,

and

and that none of them would be killed. But I say that the evidence of experience is, that a people who habitually regard the obligations of Christianity in their conduct towards other men, and who steadfastly refuse, through whatever consequences, to engage in acts of hostility, will experience protection in their peacefulness; and it matters nothing to the argument, whether we refer that protection to the immediate agency of Providence, or to the influence of such conduct upon the minds of men.

As we have the highest respect for the active benevolence of this author, we esteem his sincerity even where his arguments fail to convince us, and almost wish to be carried away by the honest glow of his enthusiasm.

Art. 21. *Lettres à Isabelle, &c.*; i. e. Letters to Isabella; or, Reflections on Education and on Society. By Madame Adèle du Thon. Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Murray. 1823.

The observations contained in these letters are generally very just and sensible, but are too frequently of a trite and obvious nature. With great propriety, the fair writer objects to the boldness and artificial manners which are so fashionable in the present day, and thinks that some degree of simplicity and natural sensibility would give to her sex more real charms. She also insists much on cultivating a habit of self-command, and argues that a calm and moderate temper has many advantages which more than counterbalance a loss of vivacity and momentary interest, if indeed these qualities are to be considered as incompatible. The compliments paid to the English character are such as must satisfy the most exorbitant claimants; indeed, they are offered with too liberal a hand: but the excess of our patriotism or the laws of politeness will not allow us to question the lady's sincerity on this head. The least every-day-observations are those on the character of enthusiasm, in which Mad. du Thon approves the indulgence of enthusiastic feelings on suitable occasions; observing that it is only the expression of them at ordinary times, and when really not required, which is the proper subject of ridicule. It is the turn of the age, however, to overlook this distinction, and the frivolous are always ready to decry any feelings of which they are themselves incapable.—The Letters are filled with English rather than French notions; and the idiom, unless we are much mistaken, is in many passages rather that of London than of Paris.

Art. 22. *The World in Miniature*; edited by Frederick Shoberl.

— *The Netherlands*; containing a Description of the Character, Manners, Habits, and Costumes, of the Inhabitants of the late Seven United Provinces, Flanders and Brabant. With Eighteen coloured Engravings. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Ackermann. 'The World in Miniature' enlarges rapidly, and promises to acquire colossal dimensions: for it already consists of more than thirty volumes, although no part of America has yet been delineated. The volume concerning Austria was noticed by us in vol. cii. p. 335; and we have now to announce a description of the Netherlands, executed with the like grace and brevity, and

adorned with similar coloured plates, which depict the costume of the inhabitants, not the monuments of the country.

At page 3. the writer describes the coast of Holland as having been invaded by the sea; whereas the testimony of Strabo places Leyden at the very mouth of the Rhine, so that the sea must considerably have receded. That high tides have frequently inundated the new islands along the coast is no proof that they do not continue to extend.

The Dutch character is thus described:

‘ In illustration of their plodding, money-getting habit, it is related that two English gentlemen being in company with a Dutchman, one of them, unacquainted with the language of the country, requested his friend to apologize to the Hollander for his inability to enjoy the pleasure of his conversation. The Dutchman listened to the apology with great composure, and then taking his pipe from his mouth, observed, that there was one comfort for the accident of not understanding one another; for, as they had no connexions or dealings in trade, their conversing together could not possibly answer any useful purpose.

‘ To the art of acquiring money the Dutch unite that of keeping it. With them it is a general rule for a man to spend less than his income; and it was this economical principle, combined with commercial enterprize and perseverance, which raised them to so high a degree of wealth and importance, both as a nation and as individuals, till the events of war rendered them tributary to France.

‘ A proverbial feature in the character of the Dutch is cleanliness. A close attention to regularity and neatness, both out of doors and within the houses, prevails throughout the United Provinces, but is most conspicuous in North Holland. It was at first rendered necessary by the humidity of the climate, to prevent rust and mould from destroying their utensils and furniture, and has since become a habit conducive at once to comfort and health. To those, however, who have been accustomed to English cleanliness, that of the Dutch will not appear remarkable. Such persons will rather be surprized at the stagnant condition of the canals, even in the principal cities, which forces itself upon the notice of the stranger by more senses than one. “ I did find candour enough among the people of Amsterdam,” says a late traveller, “ for an admission that the stench of their city was disagreeable; but in proof of its salubrity was assured by one of them, on the authority of physicians too, that the healthiest of its inhabitants were those who occupied a quarter, the canals of which were absolutely choked up by accumulations of every kind of filth.”

‘ Notwithstanding the very common use of spirits by the lowest classes, few persons in a state of intoxication are to be seen in the streets. Whether habit, or the cold and damp climate, prevent the effects of that beverage upon the Dutch, or hard labour, combined with wholesome and solid food, render the body more robust

robust and consequently less liable to be affected by ardent spirits, is a point which must be left to physicians to decide.

The habit of smoking tobacco is universal in Holland, at least among the men, who have their pipes constantly in their mouths even in the streets, where the same spectacle is frequently exhibited by women, and also by boys ten or twelve years of age, who, thus employed, and dressed in long black coats, silk breeches, and huge three-cornered hats, move with a gravity of demeanour befitting their great-grandfathers.

In the humblest cottages are found a sort of affluence and a cleanliness, of which in many other countries scarcely any idea can be formed. Here indeed there are the same laws for all, and the industrious husbandman is not the beast of burden of an imperious German baron, or the slave of an unfeeling and avaricious Russian gentleman. This rustic picture deserves to be considered with attention; and it is the more striking the farther you proceed from the cities. No where does wretchedness appear in human form, and, in one sense, there is hardly a happier creature than a Dutch peasant. Health seems to be his inheritance and that of his family; he eats in quiet the bread which rapacity cannot wrest from him with impunity; the meanest rustic is wealthy, having but very few wants, and those easily satisfied. His rich pastures, his well-cultivated fields, his productive gardens, his thriving cattle, and the cleanliness of his habitation, are all indicative of affluence and prosperity: in short, let the reader figure to himself the most complete independence, a robust constitution, indefatigable activity, reasonable gains, prudent economy, and content, as the attributes of his condition, and he will have an accurate picture of the enviable state of a Dutch peasant.

The lands in Holland are not burdened with a tithe; the tenure of property is less feudal than in most parts of Europe; and there are few entails, few large estates, few resident land-owners of consequence. — Skating parties are of an essentially native character, and are thus depicted:

Skating is a very favourite amusement with the Dutch in general, and the Frieslanders are more renowned for their rapidity than their elegance in this sport. To this character the inhabitants of Hinlopen, and the women in particular, form an exception: there cannot be skaters whose movements are more easy and graceful than theirs. The dexterity of the South Hollanders consists particularly in turning and winding in every direction, sometimes describing circles, at others, letters; but what is most curious, is, to see them alternately cross the leg which rests upon the ice with that which is disengaged, and thus proceed twenty or thirty yards after each shift. Most of the Frieslanders, on the contrary, skate in a straight line, with their feet close together, going, in general, at the rate of a mile in three or four minutes. There have been instances, indeed, of much greater rapidity: it is related that a burgomaster of Sneek, having to attend an assembly of the States at the Hague, left home at six

o'clock in the morning, and arrived at the place of his destination by noon, having travelled about 130 miles in six hours.

In Friesland the women are as fond of this exercise as the men. Several of them frequently make a match to contend for a prize consisting of some trinket of gold or silver. Though the course is but of such length as to take seven or eight minutes, yet the winner is obliged to make considerable exertion, because she has to dispute the prize alternately, and almost without intermission, with ten or twelve other candidates. At one of these races, which took place in February, 1805, on a piece of ice in the outer ditch of the town of Leeuwarden, there were thirteen competitors for the prize. They skated two and two, and after each heat, she who arrived last at the goal quitted the course. The seventh and last trial was between the two remaining winners, one of whom was twenty years of age and the other sixteen. The former gained the principal prize, consisting of a gold ornament for the head, and the other the second, which was a coral necklace with a gold clasp. One of the competitors only on this occasion was past fifty, and many of them were only fifteen. To afford some idea of their swiftness, it is stated, that one young female passed over the course, which is about 160 yards long, in thirteen seconds, which is more than twelve yards per second, or a mile in something less than two minutes and a half.

In skating for pleasure, they commonly go two and two, each with an arm round the other's waist, or one before the other and holding by the hand. Sometimes no there may be seen whole companies consisting of perhaps thirty persons, skating altogether and holding each other by the hand. The best skaters are selected for the foremost and hindmost. At the end of the course the whole file forms a circle, and it is then necessary for them to take great care not to lose their hold; for whoever breaks the chain, hurried away by the centrifugal force, falls and overthrows all those who come after. These falls are usually painful enough, though they never fail to excite the laughter of all the spectators.

That the language of the Frieslanders bears a close resemblance to the provincial English of East-Anglia, as the writer observes, will be apparent from this specimen:

Wy hadde sjoen ien schyp o pe see wear yn wier tzien man; de jense fen wa hie ien greate reade noos. It wier onder folle zylen. Wy lokeene it op in del. De wind wier goed. De sinn' schyne klear op it wetter, dog' er kam nou in dan ien schoer heyl in reyn. Dizze mannen noodjense unz yn it schyp, in tractjerden unz wol.

In English thus:—

We have seen a ship upon the sea, wherein were ten men; one of them had a great red nose. It was under full sail. We looked at it up and down. The wind was good. The sun shone clear upon the water, though there came now and then a shower of hail and rain. These men would have us into the ship, and treated us well.

This pretty little volume is perhaps too much filled with remarks on dress; which, however sacredly traditional in Holland,

is even there experiencing the influence of fashion. Steam-schuyts are superseding track-schuyts, and introducing a more rapid movement of every thing along the stagnant canals. Hence may be produced a change in the manners of the bordering villages, similar to that which the establishment of mail-coaches effected in England; and which, in a few years, abolished the provincial individualities of the different parts of this kingdom.

Art. 23. *Journal of the Principal Occurrences during the Siege of Quebec*, by the American Revolutionists under Generals Montgomery and Arnold, in 1775, 1776: containing many Anecdotes of moment never yet published, collected from some old Manuscripts originally written by an Officer, during the gallant Defence made by Sir Guy Carleton, afterwards Lord Dorchester. To which are added, a Preface and illustrative Notes, by W. T. P. Shortt. 8vo. pp. 111. Simpkin and Co.

Military men may peruse this journal with a degree of interest, which it can hardly be expected to awaken in general readers at this distance of time. In such sieges as that of Quebec, moreover, there is nothing of the pomp and circumstance of war: all is hard fighting, with empty bellies, and in the face of snow-storms. Poor Montgomery himself, who led a desperate attack on the town of Quebec, was found dead with eleven bullets in his body! "This is no flattery," as Jaques says: "these are messengers that feelingly persuade us what we are." — The Journal is written in a very plain manner, by an officer who does not appear to have extenuated any thing on one side, or set down aught in malice on the other; and we must do Mr. Shortt the justice to say that his notes are very appropriate and communicative. One of them made us smile: it occurs at page 92. The journalist states that a fire-ship attempted to run into a *cul de sac*, where the British vessels were lying in ordinary for the winter: but the project for setting fire to them failed; and the annotator exclaims with great feeling and indignation;

'We have here an instance of that determined ferocity, which prompts civilized nations to resort to such infuriate instruments as fire-ships, and other savage methods of destruction, not sanctioned by the laws of honor among belligerent powers, and long disused by the British government; which generally contents itself with bombs and Congreve-rockets, for the purpose of destroying an enemy's ships or magazines, and with using what is generally termed "fair shot" by the common consent of mankind.'

The use of fire-ships, then, is a savage method of destruction: but red-hot balls, bombs, and Congreve-rockets, are employed by gentlemen of civilized society. What character did those blazing hoops bear which, in their tender mercies, the humane Knights of Malta flung among the troops of Saladin, embracing within their deadly circle the enemies of the Cross? — The Greeks are using fire-ships, to the consternation of the Turks, at this moment: but the more civilized Turks, we believe, have been supplied with Congreve-rockets by British ships; and this is legitimate and 'fair shot.' In the British navy, however, we have

have a great many vessels of most frightful and portentous names, and wonderously indicative of some volcanic properties and propensities.

Art. 24. *A Dictionary of Quotations from the British Poets*, in Three Parts: Part the Second; Blank Verse. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Whittakers. 1824.

We have here the second part of a work, the first of which has been already noticed in our pages. The nature of such a compilation exempts it from a formal critique: but we may be allowed to doubt the utility of such publications. They may, indeed, furnish the professed quoter with materials, and lay in a stock of passages "ready cut and dried" for him, without putting him to the trouble of referring to the original sources: but the scholar and the man of letters would disdain so superficial an acquirement, and be ashamed of displaying a species of reading which has been thus obtained. We do not imagine that such compilations are likely to be adopted in our schools: but Seneca (Ep. 33.) complains of similar errors in the schools of his time. "*Pueris et sententias ediscendas damus, et has quas Græci $\chi\rho\epsilon\iota\alpha\iota$ vocant; viro captare flosculos turpe est, et fulsire notissimis verbis et memoriam stare. Sibi jam innitatur; dicat ista, non teneat.*"

Real learning is shewn by its general results in literary conversation, and not in detail. Epictetus, speaking of those who quoted profusely to shew their information, observes somewhere that they reminded him of a man who, in order to convince another of the goodness of his diet, did not refer to the healthiness of his looks and the robustness of his frame, but emptied the contents of his stomach before him.

Art. 25. *Letters between Amelia in London and her Mother in the Country*, written by the late W. Combe, Esq., Author of the *Three Tours of Dr. Syntax*. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Ackermann. 1824.

The tours — or *carica-tours* — of Dr. Syntax gave to that learned and reverend gentleman a considerable notoriety at Brighton, Bath, Cheltenham, and all the fashionable watering places, where toy-lotteries and circulating libraries spread their painted allurements before the eyes of idlers, invalids, and young ladies: but the Doctor has taken off his bushy wig and plush-breeches on the present occasion, and entirely changed his habiliments. These letters are supposed to have passed between a young Lady of Fashion in London and her Mother in the Country, each giving an account of her occupations and amusements; and treating, *inter alia*, of love, marriage, friendship, and the pleasures of imagination. They were written, it seems, for a monthly publication, called the *Repository of Arts*; and they have a moral tendency, which is nearly all the merit that we can assign to them, as they rank among the slip-slops of the day.

Mr. Combe, whose decease took place not long since, at an advanced age, was a man of considerable talents; and his chequered career might, we apprehend, furnish as much interest and as good
a moral

a moral lesson as any production of his own pen or of his numerous brotherhood of authors. Perhaps we shall hereafter be supplied with a delineation of it, — without caricature.

Art. 26. *The Blank Book of a Small Colleger.* 12mo. pp. 142. 4s. Boards. Boys. 1824.

These are the *faciæ* of a lively Cantab., who now and then hashes up an old story with *sauce piquante*, and makes it tolerably palatable. Some college-frolics are very well told. 'Trinity-College forty years ago' was, perhaps, different from what Trinity-College is now in some respects: but in the pranks played by the young men probably little variation has occurred, or will occur, while the institutions of society and the inclinations of human nature remain the same.

Art. 27. *Peace and War; an Essay, in Two Parts.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Hatchard and Son.

The arguments generally used to shew that war, in any case, and under any circumstances, is utterly repugnant to the spirit of Christianity, are well put together in this pamphlet; and the considerations which are urged even against defensive warfare deserve serious reflection; though we confess that we do not agree with the benevolent writer in the conclusion which he draws. (See also Art. 20.)

CORRESPONDENCE.

E. T. P. has sent to us a translation of the beautiful epigram, *Ad Somnum*, beginning "*Somme levis*," which is so well known, and has been often translated, but the writer of which has never been discovered. On turning to the old volume of the M. R. from which E. T. P. has taken it, we observe that it is there quoted from "*A Collection of Latin Poems by English Authors*:" but on what ground this assertion was made by that compiler we are not aware. E. T. P.'s version would be good, had it not the unpardonable fault of amplifying four lines into eight.

We coincide with the right judgment of W. B., when we object to the offer which he suggests; and we are prevented, at present, from saying any thing farther on the subject of his letter.

In the APPENDIX to vol. civ. of the Review, which was published with our last Number, and contains FOREIGN LITERATURE, &c. as usual, we were led into a misrepresentation as to the author of "*The Hermit in Italy*," of which we now wish to apprise our readers. This work, we understand, is not written by M. DE JOUY, but by some imitator, not unsuccessfully, who hoped to profit by the popularity of that author's productions; and who therefore termed his book "*A Continuation of French Manners and English Manners by M. DE JOUY*." The insertion or omission of a full stop after "*English Manners*" makes all the difference of the sense. We had some doubts at the time, but were not able to decide the question,



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For NOVEMBER, 1824.

ART. I. *A Geognostical Essay on the Superposition of Rocks, in both Hemispheres.* By Alexandre de Humboldt. Translated from the original French. 8vo. pp. 490. 14s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE Baron de Humboldt's Travels in equinoctial America have long formed the principal theme of his literary labors; and even his publications of a general description have a reference, more or less pointed, to his scientific peregrinations on the other side of the Atlantic. Thus both the doctrinal and the illustrative portions of the present treatise derive their essential and characteristic features from the relative positions of the rocks observed in the Cordilleras, and compared with corresponding formations in other quarters of the globe. Some years ago, the author exhibited a tabular view of the same subject; and he has been prompted to give it more shape and consistency, in consequence of an application for contribution to the *Dictionnaire des Sciences Naturelles*: because, having engaged to furnish the article *Geography of Plants*, and having been prevented by some unforeseen occupations from fulfilling his promise, he prepared in exchange the article *Geognosy*, which is now printed in this separate form, and with a more appropriate title.

In fact, the work before us does not profess to theorize on the mode in which the earth received its constitution, but aims only at the more rational and attainable object of noting the order or series in which rocks are found actually to exist, and of generalizing the results. We know few individuals whose qualifications and opportunities can supply more ample inductions, or more copious resources and facilities, in the furtherance of such a design than M. de Humboldt; since the field of his observation, both in the old and the new continent, has proved at once extensive and varied, his acquirements are of the highest order, and he has generously devoted his time, his talents, and his fortune, to the diffusion of physical knowledge. The geological statements, however, of the most gifted single observer, may not be infallible; for we cannot

dissemble that difficulties and delusions beset his path, that he may be unconsciously biassed by the nature of the localities that are most familiar to his contemplation, and that, from a desire to expand and simplify his arrangements, his imagination may too liberally subtract whole formations on the one hand, or superadd them on the other. We would not positively assert that this distinguished traveller has steered perfectly clear of the influence of such errors: but he is generally cautious and candid, and has furnished many excellent data to future inquirers. In circumscribing the limits of the respective formations, he has been guided by the principle suggested by his friend, Von Buch; namely, that the independence of a formation is to be ascertained by its immediate superposition on rocks of a different nature, which, consequently, ought to be regarded as the more antient. Other essential precautions and distinctions, most of which will occur to the experienced geologist, are pointed out in the introduction; and, by the adoption of *parallel formations*, or *geognostic equivalents*, (secondary types, or representations,) the author has given considerable extension to his method of arrangement, without impairing its philosophical consistency. By the help of *alternations*, too, he connects formations which seemed at first sight to present nothing in common.

‘It is usual,’ says M. de H., ‘to terminate the series of formations by the volcanic rocks, and to make them succeed to the secondary and tertiary formations, and even to the alluvial deposits; but in a tabular arrangement, formed accordingly to the principle of relative age, this mode has not appeared to me the most proper. It is certain that lithoid lavas often cover the most recent formations, and even beds of gravel. It cannot be denied that there exist volcanic productions of different epochas; but, from what I could observe in the Cordilleras of Peru, of Quito, and of Mexico, a part of the world so celebrated for the number of its volcanoes, it appeared to me that the principal seat of the subterranean fires is in the transition-rocks, and beneath them. I have observed, that all the burning or extinguished craters of the Andes have opened amidst trap, porphyries, or trachytes (*Berl. Abhandl. der Kön. Acad.*, 1813, p. 131.); and that these trachytes are connected with the great formation of *transition-porphyry and syenite*. From this observation it appeared to me more natural to make the secondary and volcanic formations follow in a parallel succession, and, as it were, by bisection, to the transition-formations. By this new disposition, the porphyry and *grauwacke* formation, or that of the porphyries, syenites, and granites of transition, is connected at the same time, 1^o, to the porphyries of the red sandstone, in the secondary coal-formation; 2^o, to the trachytes or trap-porphyries, destitute of quartz and containing augites. I use with regret the term “*volcanic formation*,” not that I have any doubts, like those
who

who designate the trachytes, basalts, and porphyry-slates (porphyrschiefer), under the name of *trap-formation*, that all which I have included in volcanic formations has been produced or altered by fire; but because several rocks interposed between (primitive?) transition and secondary rocks, may also be volcanic. I wished at the same time to avoid any historical idea of the origin of things, in a statistical view of superposition. At Skeen, in Norway, a basaltic and porous syenite, containing pyroxenes, is found, according to the observations of M. de Buch, between transition-limestone and zircon-syenite. This is a bed and not a vein (dyke); and is a phenomenon much less problematical than the basalts (urgrunstein? Buch, *Geogn. Beob.*, vol. i. p. 124., and Raumer, *Granit des Riesengebirges*, p. 70.) contained in the mica-slate of Krobsdorf in Silesia. The trachytes of Mexico, containing obsidian, are intimately connected with the transition-porphyrries that alternate with syenites. The mandelsteins belonging to the red sandstone have, on the continent of Europe, and in equinoxial America, all the appearance of a mandelstein of basaltic formation. M. Boué, in his interesting *Essai Géologique sur l'Ecosse*, p. 126—162., describes pyroxenic rocks (dolerites), imbedded in the old red sandstone. Without in any way deciding on the question of the origin of those masses, or in general on that of the primitive and transition rocks, we shall denote by the name of volcanic formations the *least interrupted series* of rocks altered by fire.

Our attention is likewise called, in the Introduction, to the qualified manner in which the presence of zoological remains should be held as indicative of any particular formation: for not only are the genera and species of such remains determined with difficulty, but the same families are found enveloped in rocks of different characters. We know, from the existing state of things, that distinct races of mollusca people the waters of the tropics and those of the temperate and frigid zones; and hence there may be identity of mineral composition and diversity of fossils, or identity of fossils and diversity of mineral composition. Although, however, it would be unreasonable to expect to find in every different formation the traces of different organized bodies, yet formations reputed identical usually contain fossils of similar species. In some cases, too, the absence of particular species affords a good negative character; as in the transition-rocks, for example, where many kinds are wanting which occur abundantly above the red sandstone. Due boundaries, moreover, are prescribed to the doctrine which would multiply the alternations of fresh and salt-water formations; though, says the author,

‘ I am far from disputing the existence of a fresh-water formation, superior to every other tertiary formation, and which con-

tains only bulimi, limnæ, cyclostomæ, and potamides; recent observations have demonstrated that this formation is more generally spread than was at first supposed; it is a new and last term to be added to the geognostic series. We owe the accurate knowledge of this fresh-water limestone to the useful labours of M. Brongniart. The phenomena presented by the fresh-water formations, the existence of which was formerly known only by the tufas of Thuringia, and by the ever-renowned *travertino* of the plains of Rome, (Reuss, *Geogn.*, t. ii. p. 642.; Buch, *Geogn. Beob.* t. ii. p. 21—30.) are connected in the most satisfactory manner with the admirable laws which M. Cuvier has noticed in the position of the bones of viviparous quadrupeds. (Brongniart, *Annales du Muséum*, t. xv. p. 357. 581.; Cuvier, *Rech. sur les Ossem. Fossiles*, t. i. p. 54.)

An important result is next noted; namely, that, although the direction of the strata of the earth is not invariably the same, yet it is so, or nearly so, over extensive tracts of territory; that which runs from N. E. to S. W. being the predominant bearing: but that the dip or inclination is more variable, having been influenced by local circumstances.

In now proceeding to a brief consideration of the work itself, we have to remark that its main divisions are the *Primitive*, *Transition*, *Volcanic*, *Secondary*, and *Tertiary* Formations. That dispositions of rocks corresponding to such divisions exist in nature, we do not mean to deny: but their simple designation by numbers might have obviated apparent inconsistencies, and the implication of theory in the terms *Transition* and *Volcanic*.—The five prominent sections of the primitive series are, 1. Granite, Gneiss, Mica-slate, and Euphotide, posterior to Clay-slate, comprizing alternations of the same substances, Stanniferous Granite, and Weistein, (White-stone) with Serpentine; 2. Gneiss and Mica-slate, Granite posterior to Gneiss, but anterior to primitive Mica-slate, and presumed primitive Syenite, Serpentine, and Limestone; 3. Granite posterior to Mica-slate, but anterior to Clay-slate, Gneiss posterior to Mica-slate, and Green-stone-slate; 4. Quartz-rock, Granite and Gneiss posterior to Clay-slate, and Primitive Porphyry; 5. Primitive Euphotide posterior to Clay-slate.

M. de H. well observes that it cannot, with absolute certainty, be predicated of any description of granite that its existence was anterior to that of any other kindred rock; because we cannot demonstrate that, beneath such a granite, gneiss or some other alleged primitive rock may not again be found. Besides, at considerable depths, materials may exist of a quite different structure, and of metallic density. According to the present writer, in both hemispheres, but particularly

ticularly in the new world, that granite may be deemed most ancient which is unstratified, and which is rich in quartz and less abundant in mica; while beds of syenite are supposed to characterize the most modern. The gneiss-formations, reputed primitive, are not less extensive or intricate than those of granite; and we shall not attempt to pursue them as unfolded in these pages. It may be of more importance to note the following facts:

‘ The great formation of primitive gneiss, rich in the ores of silver and gold, in Germany, some parts of France, Greece, and Asia Minor, has been long considered as the most argentiferous rock of the globe. We now know, from researches made in both Americas, and in Hungary, that the great mass of precious metals which circulate in the two continents has been procured from formations much later than gneiss, and every other primitive formation; that they come from transition-rocks, syenitic porphyries, and even trachytes.’ — ‘ If gneiss, mica-slate, and a granite of second formation, constitute the most lofty summits in the mountains of Europe, the most elevated summits of the Andes, on the contrary, exhibit only immense accumulations of trachytic rocks.’

The frequent suppression of the micaceous or schistose members, in the primitive formations of Mexico and South America, is noticed as a remarkable phænomenon; and it occurs even where trachytes and other volcanic indications are absent. — Clay-slate appears to be entirely wanting in the Cordillera of Parime; and in the Andes, as in the Pyrénées, it occupies a comparatively limited extent. — The ensuing account of a peculiar modification of quartz-rock will be acceptable to most of our geological readers:

‘ This is the great formation that contains the itacolumite, or elastic chloritous quartz (gelinkquarz, biegsamer sandstein, chloritquarz) of M. d’Eschwege, and the beds of micaceous and specular iron. On the south of the equator we find, in the mountains of Brazil, and in the Cordilleras of the Andes, masses of quartz, sometimes quite pure, sometimes mixed with talc and chlorite, and which, from the enormous thickness of their beds, and the extent they occupy, merit the attention of geognosts. Those rocks of quartz appeared to me to consist of several formations of very different relative antiquity. In South America, some are connected with a clay-slate decidedly primitive; others, much more difficult to understand in their relations of superposition, are placed between transition-porphyry and alpine limestone, and sometimes replace the red sand-stone. We shall here speak only of the former, separating the formations of which the position is well known, from those which are more uncertain. On the tableland of Minas-Geraes, near to Villa-Rica, (according to the excel-

lent observations of M. d'Eschwege, director-general of the mines of Brazil,) a mica-slate that contains beds of granular limestone is covered by primitive clay-slate. On this latter rock reposes, in conformable stratification, the chloritous quartz (chloritquarz), which constitutes the mass of the Peak of Itaculumi, 1000 toises above the level of the sea. This formation of quartz contains alternating beds; 1°, of auriferous quartz, white, greenish, or striped, mixed with talc-chlorite, and exhibiting strata of flexible quartz, which have hitherto been improperly considered as hyalomictes (greisen), or as beds of quartz in mica-slate; 2°, chlorite-slate; 3°, auriferous quartz, mixed with tourmaline (schorlschiefer of Freiesleben); 4°, specular iron, mixed with auriferous quartz (goldhaltiger eisenglimmerschiefer). The beds of chloritous quartz are sometimes 1000 feet thick. The whole of this formation is covered by a ferruginous breccia, extremely auriferous. M. d'Eschwege thinks that it is to the destruction of the beds we have just named, and which are geognostically connected together, that the soil which is worked by means of washing should be attributed, containing gold, platina, palladium and diamonds (Corrego das Lagens), gold and diamonds (Tejuco), platina and diamonds (Rio Abacte). The decomposed chlorite-slate, from which the topaz and the euclase of Brazil are procured, belongs to this formation. Sometimes in the mountains of Minas-Geraes, the quartz-rock is of a more simple structure. Instead of being composed of alternate beds, it consists but of a simple mass of quartz, with dense or granular specular iron (dichter eisenglanz; fer oligiste, not lamellar nor micaceous). This mass is sometimes 1800 feet thick, and contains no disseminated gold. It is placed on primitive clay-slate that immediately covers gneiss. It may be said that it is this but little known formation of itacolumite quartz, which has furnished, by its decomposition, (into the alluvial soil which has proceeded from it,) in the years 1756—1764, nearly thirty millions of franks in gold annually. It immediately succeeds clay-slate; but according to the observations hitherto made, it would be difficult to class it with the novaculite or whet-slate (coswez-schiefer), which is greenish-grey, smoke-grey, mixed with much alumine, and forming a subordinate bed in clay-slate. The itacolumite quartz, by an oryctognostic affinity which exists between talc and chlorite, is allied to talc-slate (talk-schiefer), which abounds, in every other country, with minerals well crystallized, and which, by the suppression of the plates of talc, is sometimes only pure quartz; the talc-schist forms, therefore, in the two continents, beds subordinate to clay-slate, and to primitive mica-slate. I found a formation analogous to that of Minas-Geraes, but destitute of specular iron, at the height of 1600 toises above the level of the sea, in the savannahs of Tiocaxas, (at the south of Chimborazo, between Guamote and San-Luis,) and at the east of the Paramo de Yamoca, near Hecatacumba (Andes de Quito). Enormous masses of quartz are there mixed with some plates of mica, and superposed to primitive clay-slate.'

A similar formation in Norway, and another in Brazil, contain sulphur.

The second or Transition division consists of six sections, intitled, 1. Steatitic granular Lime-stone, Transition Mica-slate, and Grauwacke with primitive fragments; 2. Porphyry anterior to Orthoceratite Lime-stone; 3. Clay-slate, containing Grauwacke, Lime-stone, Porphyry, and Green-stone; 4. Porphyry and Syenite posterior to Transition Clay-slate, but anterior to Lime-stone, containing organic remains; 5. Porphyry, Syenite, and Zircon granites posterior to Clay-slate and Lime-stone with Orthoceratites; 6. Transition Euphotide, with Jasper and Serpentine. — This, accordingly, is a complex series, of which the groupes seem to pass into one another; and its lines of demarcation are more perceptible towards the upper part, where the secondary formations begin, than towards the lower, where the primitive terminate. Its members, likewise, frequently present different alternations, and are less distinctly separated in nature than in the arrangements of the geologist. The order which M. de H. has adopted results from his own observations, and those of some of the most eminent geognosts of the present day, on the transition-masses in the Andes of Quito and Peru, in the mountains of Mexico, Hungary, the Tarentaise, Swisserland, Brittany, Germany, the Caucasus, &c.—The lime-stone of the Tarentaise, of the Little St. Bernard, and of the Alps of Carinthia, is remarkable for containing felspar, notwithstanding the repulsion which has been usually observed between that substance and lime. — The alternating beds of talcose, compact, and granular lime-stone, clay-slate, and compact quartz, generally exhibit few vestiges of organized bodies; although the schists contain occasional impressions of monocotyledonous plants, and Brochant detected a nautilite or ammonite in the calcareous pudding-stones of La Vilette. — Porphyries and syenites, immediately covering primitive rocks, black lime-stone, and green-stone, and destitute of grauwacke, constitute a leading and extensive formation in equinoctial America. These porphyries, so familiar to the author's observation, are sometimes rich in the ores of gold and silver, and most frequently are covered by trachytes which are still affected by volcanic agency. The sphere of the latter, also, appears to have been more widely extended than we have commonly supposed, and is not to be circumscribed by the localities of existing craters. M. de H. has very distinctly unfolded the composition and associations of those porphyroid rocks which frequently assume a decided volcanic aspect; though without warranting the inference that

their whole extent is of igneous origin. We cannot undertake to detail the various modifications and specialties, observable in this well-characterized groupe of rocks: but we may be allowed to notice that the porphyries manifest a very sensible degree of polarity, even in their smallest fragments.

The groupe, of which transition clay-slate is the type, is exemplified in the great slate-formation of the Pyrénées, and in those of the Swiss Alps, of the north of Germany, &c. As subsidiary members of the same association, may be mentioned beds of compact quartz, Lydian-stone, carburetted ampelite, small-grained granite, and serpentine. Such associations, either in an insulated or an alternating state, occur in various quarters of the world; and they have been too long studied to require discussion. At the same time, it happens here, as in many other cases, that the confines of the series are with difficulty ascertained; and the author evinces considerable ingenuity and penetration in assigning the legitimate boundaries of the section in different localities.

To the next groupe of porphyries, syenites, and greenstone, belong the zircon-syenite, transition-granite, and porphyry of Norway. — Here we are tempted to cite some succinct and authentic indications of repositories of the precious metals in the new world.

‘ If the great argentiferous and auriferous deposits that have formed for ages the wealth of Hungary and Transylvania, are found solely amidst syenites and porphyritic greenstones, we must not thence conclude that it is the same in New Spain. The Mexican porphyries no doubt offer insulated examples of immense riches. At Pachuca, the only pit of del Encino furnished alone annually, during a long time, more than 30,000 marks of silver; in 1726 and 1727, the two workings of la Biscaina and Xacal gave together 542,000 marks, that is, almost twice as much as all Europe and Asiatic Russia produced in the same interval. These same porphyries of Real del Monte, which are connected by their upper beds with porphyritic trachytes and pearl-stone with obsidian of Cerro de las Navajas, furnished by the working of the mine of la Biscaina, to the Count of Regla, from 1762 to 1781, more than eleven millions of piasters. These riches, however, are still inferior to those which are drawn in the same country from transition-formations which are not porphyritic. The veta negra of Sombrerete, which traverses a compact limestone, containing nodules of lydian-stone, has furnished the example of the greatest abundance of silver which has been observed in the two worlds; the family of Fagoaga, or of the Marquis del Apartado, drew from thence in a few months a neat profit of four millions of piasters. The produce of the mine of Valenciana, worked in transition-slate, has been so constant, that to the end of the last century it never ceased to furnish annually, during forty years successively,

above 360,000 marks of silver. In general, in the central part of New Spain, where porphyries are frequent, it is not that rock which affords the precious metals in the three great workings of Guanaxuato, Zacatecas, and Catorce. These three mining districts, which yield the half of all the Mexican gold and silver, are situated between the 18° and 23° of north latitude. The miners there work on metalliferous mineral deposits almost entirely in intermediary formations of clay-slate, grauwacke, and alpine limestone; I say almost entirely, for the famous *Veta madre* de Guanaxuato, richer than Potosi, and furnishing till 1804, on an average, a sixth of the silver which America pours into the circulation of the whole world, traverses both clay-slate and porphyry. The mines of Belgrado, San Bruno, and Marisanchez, opened in the porphyritic part at the south-east of Valenciana, are but of small importance. Other workings carried on the porphyries of the group (Real del Monte, Moran, Pachuca, and Bolaños,) do not now furnish above 100,000 marks, or a twenty-fifth part of the silver exported (1803) from the port of Vera Cruz. I thought it was here proper to state these facts, because the denomination which I have often used in my works of *metalliferous porphyries* might lead to the error of considering the metallic riches of the new world as procured in great part from transition-porphyries. The more we advance in the study of the constitution of the globe in different climates, the more we are convinced that there scarcely exists one rock anterior to alpine limestone which has not been found in some countries extremely argentiferous. The phenomenon of these ancient veins in which our metallic riches are deposited (perhaps as the specular iron and muriate of copper are deposited in modern times in the fissures of lava) is a phenomenon that appears in some degree independent of the specific nature of rocks.

Baron de H. then characterizes with much ability, and, we presume, with much knowledge of the facts, the porphyries and syenites of Hungary, Saxony, Norway, and South America.

Independent beds of euphotide and serpentine, though of comparatively limited extent, are often of complicated structure; and, without including the doubtful repository of Zöblitz, in Saxony, which is uncovered, they may be reduced to those that are interposed between the primitive and the transition-divisions, as in Norway and Hungary, and those which are bounded by the transition-rocks on the one hand and the secondary on the other.

The exposition of the secondary formations is introduced by the important remark, that all their members are seldom found united in the same tract of country; their calcareous type, or some other, being frequently suppressed. The first section of these formations comprizes Coal, Red Sand-stone, Secondary Porphyry, Amygdaloid, Green-stone, and Limestone,

stone, with occasional interpositions of felspatose and pyroxenic granular rocks, retinites, &c.

‘The English mineralogists call a formation of red sandstone and porphyry by the name of *new red conglomerate* (Exeter and Teignmouth), to distinguish it from their old red sandstone of Mitchel Dean in Herefordshire, which is an arenaceous transition-rock (grauwacke,) placed between two transition-limestones, those of Derbyshire and Longhope. This nomenclature, which the learned professor of Oxford, Mr. Buckland, has lately explained, has occasioned many geological mistakes. I believe it would be very useful to the progress of the science of positions, if, by degrees, those vague denominations were abandoned of *ancient*, *intermediary*, and *new sandstone*, *lower* and *upper sandstone*, and *gypsum*, and *limestone*, of the *first*, *second*, and *third* formation. They are only relatively true, in particular places; and they enumerate what is numerically variable, according to the alterations and suppressions of different terms of the series.’

In this country, the geological relations of coal are now generally understood: but, while with us that important mineral substance is found even beneath the bottom of the sea, the present distinguished traveller has seen it, in the tableland of Santa Fé de Bogota, rising to 1360 toises above the level of the ocean; and he was well assured that, near Huanuco, it occurs at the elevation of 2300 toises, consequently above the line of phænogamous vegetation. — Not fewer than six distinct formations of red sandstone in South America, with their analogies to or discrepancies from similar formations in Europe, pass in review; and our attention is next drawn to a remarkable secondary quartz-rock, to which hitherto no corresponding type has been discovered in the old world. It predominates in the Andes of Peru, between the 7th and 8th degrees of southern latitude.

‘I have seen it,’ says the Baron, ‘reposing indifferently on transition-porphyrines (at the eastern declivity of the Cordillera, Cerro of N. S. del Carmen, near San Felipe, 982 toises; Paramo de Yanaguanga, between Micuipampa and Caxamarca, 1900 toises; at the western declivity of the Cordilleras, Namas and Magdalena, 690 toises); and on primitive granite (Chala, near the coast of the Pacific Ocean, 212 toises). This superposition on rocks of a very different age proves the *independence* of the formation which we describe. It is much less developed at the eastern than at the western declivity of the Andes. At the latter it attains a thickness of several thousand feet, reckoning perpendicularly to the planes of stratification; it there replaces the red sandstone, supporting immediately (Indian villages of la Magdalena and Contumaza) zechstein or alpine limestone. It is either the latest of the transition-formations, or the most ancient of the secondary formations; it is a real compact or granular quartz, not porous

porous or cellular, most frequently greyish-white, or yellowish and opaque, and not mixed either with talc or mica. This formation is sometimes compact and with a scaly fracture, like quartz in beds (lagerquartz of primitive gneiss-granite); sometimes with very fine grains, similar to that of the quartz of the transition-limestone of the Tarantaise. It is consequently neither an arenaceous rock, nor a variety of the quartzose sandstone with a siliceous cement, in which the cement disappears by degrees, and which belongs both to the variegated sandstone (Detmold), quadersandstein, green sandstone, plastic clay (trappsandstein), and to the sandstone of the tertiary formation (forest of Fontainebleau). The deep ravines that furrow the declivity of the Cordilleras, and the immense number of blocks torn from their natural position, facilitate the observation of this formation of quartz, which is very homogeneous, destitute of shells, and also of subordinate beds. I examined it for several days, expecting to find, in a rock covered by zechstein and replacing the red sandstone, some traces of a cement, of grains or agglutinated fragments: my researches were fruitless; I could no where convince myself that this compact or granular quartz was an arenaceous or fragmentary rock. It is sometimes very regularly separated into beds of eight inches to two feet thick, directed (Aroma, Magdalena, and Cascas) N. 53°, 68° W., and inclined from 70° to 80° S. E. At the eastern declivity of the Andes, on the banks of the Chamaya, a bed of quartz, similar to that which I have just described, appears interposed in a formation of greyish-blue compact limestone. This limestone is not a transition-rock (as might be thought from the position of the compact quartz of Pesay and Tines in the Tarantaise); the number and nature of its shells, on the contrary, as well as the sinuosity of its beds, seem to bring it nearer to the zechstein or the alpine limestone. It is not extraordinary to see a siliceous rock which supports limestone penetrate into it, and there form an interposed bed. This circumstance also occurs, but in veins (Cerro de N. S. del Carmen near San Felipe), in the formation on which quartz-rock reposes. The alpine limestone of San Felipe covers this rock, which is placed on green transition-porphry traversed by veins of quartz three feet thick.

The terms *Zechstein* and *Alpine Lime-stone* have been used with such latitude and ambiguity of acceptation, that the author has deemed it proper to discuss their import with accuracy, and to enter into a critical analysis of the principal repositories which have been so denominated; including, as associated strata, a limited description of coal, muriatiferous clay, or rock-salt, anhydrous gypsum, variegated sandstone, &c.

A section is next allotted to the arenaceous and calcareous (marly and oolitic) deposites, placed between the zechstein and the chalk; and, as affiliated members of the same groupe, clay and variegated sand-stone, gypsum and rock-salt,

salt, shelly lime-stone, quader-sandstein, Jura lime-stone, or lias, marl and oolitic deposits, ferruginous and green sand-stone.

‘ To this same formation, the lignites also of the Isle of Aix belong, on which M. Fleuriat de Bellevue has made such interesting researches. According to that learned geologist, the sub-marine forest on the coast of Rochelle consists of flattened dicotyledon wood partly petrified, partly bituminous or fragile, and sometimes passing to a state of jet. These woods are penetrated by pyrites, and pierced by the teredo and marine worms. The holes resulting from this perforation are filled with quartz agathe, and sulphuret of iron. The trees are found either in horizontal beds, sometimes in a parallel direction, sometimes collected in disorder. The wood, when altogether or partly petrified, reposes on a green sand; those which are in a fibrous or bituminous slate repose on beds of plastic clay of a deep blue. They are surrounded by marine algæ and small branches of lignite. Among the masses of algæ is found a resin that passes to amber; it is friable and of various colours. Trunks of trees heaped together form a band of a league and a half in breadth, from the extremity of the north-west of the isle of Oleron as far as fourteen leagues in the interior of the continent, on the right bank of the Charente. This band is more than seven feet thick; it runs from W. N. W. to E. S. E., and is three feet above the level of the sea at low tide. Where the lignites are covered by the ocean they are incorporated (like the masses of succin-asphalte and the great bones of marine animals) with a coarse sandstone which reposes on plastic clay.’

The chalk, which closes the secondary series, is a more extensive formation than geologists at first supposed; for, besides France and England, it has been observed in Denmark, and in several districts of Germany. Its lowermost beds are usually friable, and mingled with chlorite; while those in the middle are coarse, arenaceous, and marly; and those above are soft, pure, and white.

Until lately, the tertiary formations were but little understood, and conceived to embrace only a very limited range: but the recent investigations of Cuvier, Brongniart, Conybeare, Phillips, Beudant, and others, have thrown new and interesting light on this department of the gradation of rocks, and have contributed to the recognition of its several sections. These consist, 1. of Clay and Sand-stone, with Lignites; 2. *Calcaire Grossier*, or Parisian Lime-stone, with the parallel London Clay, and the Arenaceous Lime-stone of Bognor; 3. Siliceous Lime-stone, with Gypsum and Marl; 4. Superposed Sand-stone and Sand, of which Fontainebleau furnishes the type; and, 5. Fresh-water Formations, with Cavernous Mill-stone. Of these, the *Calcaire Grossier* is the most

most diffused and complicated, being found in England, France, Hungary, Italy, and the new continent.

' The lower beds of the calcaire grossier of Paris are chloritous (glauconeuses), arenaceous, and contain madrepores and nummulites. In the middle beds many impressions are found of leaves and stalks of plants, (*Endogenites echinatus*, *Flabellites Parisiensis*, *Pinus Defranci*, according to the work of M. Adolphe Brongniart on fossil vegetables,) milliolites, ovulites, cytheræ, but scarcely any cerithia. The upper beds contain lucinæ, ampullaria, striated corbulæ, and a great variety (nearly sixty species) of cerithia; but, in general, the latter strata abounds less in fossil bodies than the middle and lower strata, in which MM. DeFrance and Brongniart have collected near 600 species of shells. The famous shelly bed of Grignon and the fossils of the *Falun de Touraine* belong principally to the middle strata.'

Although the *Volcanic Formations* are discussed in the conclusion of the present volume, we have already noted the station which the author would assign to them in his orderly distribution of rocks. We may be permitted to doubt whether, philosophically considered, they ought to constitute a distinct class, because they are properly reducible to rocks previously described, and merely altered in their aspect and texture by the agency of heat: but this consideration will not detract from M. de H.'s interesting communications concerning their general characters and positions in the new continent, which form a valuable supplement to the very masterly labors of Cordier and de Bellevue.

To the illustration of these views of the superposition of rocks are subjoined a tabular arrangement of the formations in the ascending series, and the sketch of a sort of algorithmic notation of the geognosy of positions. The whole work is evidently the fruit of much patient, active, and discriminate observation; and it has the rare merit of never deviating for a moment from the plan originally proposed. We should also mention that the uniform citation of localities will enable those, who may have opportunities, to put the author's views and statements to the satisfactory test of ocular inspection.

ART. II. *The Brides of Florence*; a Play: in Five Acts. Illustrative of the Manners of the Middle Ages. With Historical Notes, and Minor Poems. By Randolph Fitz-Eustace. 8vo. pp. 297. Hurst. 1824.

WE are told by the author that this play is an attempt to produce the renovation of the antient drama: but it is an effort which has in this instance failed, and which will always fail, we are induced to believe, where the spirit and manner of any literary

literary age are the subjects of imitation. The utmost that can be accomplished, in this kind of writing, is the exhibition of much skill and clever mimicry : but the whole must, almost inevitably, be a cento of phrases taken from the dramatists whom it is proposed to follow, with a few occasional resemblances to their modes of speech and forms of dialogue. It abundantly appears from the notes that Mr. Fitz-Eustace, if this be not a pseudonymous appellative, is well read in our elder dramatic writers : but a critical acquaintance with them is not all that is necessary for the transfusion of their feelings and their thoughts into a dramatic poem. In one respect, he has eminently departed from the style of those great artists ; — we mean in the quaint terseness and concentrated vigor of their poetic language. We do not intend to say, however, that a snip-snap brevity and quick sententious reciprocation of dialogue, such for example as distinguish occasional scenes in Euripides, are imputable to the early writers whom Mr. Fitz-Eustace has endeavored to imitate ; for that would have been incompatible with the liberal unrestrained flow of elocution, in which almost all their characters are prone to indulge : but their taste was too severe to overpower a prevailing sentiment with too many accessory ornaments and illustrations. Let us take the best of Ford's plays, " 'Tis pity she's a Whore," which fills us full of horror. The following scene, which is almost the only one that we could select from it without giving offence to modesty, passes between Annabella and the Friar to whom she has just confessed her incestuous passion for her brother :

" *Friar.* I am glad to see this penance ; for believe me
You have unripped a soul so foul and guilty,
As I must tell you true, I marvel how
The earth hath borne you up ; but weep, weep on,
These tears may do you good ; weep faster yet,
While I do read a lecture.

" *Ann.* Wretched creature !

" *Friar.* Ay, you are wretched, miserably wretched,
Almost condemned alive. There is a place,
(List, daughter,) in a black and hollow vault,
Where day is never seen ; there shines no sun,
But flaming horror of consuming fires :
A lightless sulphur, choked with smoky fogs
Of an infected darkness ; in this place
Dwell many thousand-thousand sundry sorts
Of never-dying deaths ; there damned souls
Roar without pity ; there are gluttons fed
With toads and adders ; there is burning oil
Poured down the drunkard's throat ; the usurer

Is forced to sup whole draughts of molten gold:
 There is the murderer for ever stabbed,
 Yet can he never die; there lies the wanton
 On racks of burning steel, whilst in his soul
 He feels the torment of his raging lust.

"*Ann.* Mercy! oh, mercy!

"*Friar.* There stand those wretched things
 Who have dreamed out whole years in lawless sheets
 And secret incests, cursing one another;
 Then you will wish each kiss your brother gave
 Had been a dagger's point; then you shall hear
 How he will cry, 'Oh, would my wicked sister
 Had first been damned when she did yield to lust.'
 But soft, methinks I see repentance work
 New motions in your heart; say, how is't with you?

"*Ann.* Is there no way to redeem my miseries?

"*Friar.* There is; despair not. Heaven is merciful,
 And offers grace e'en now. 'Tis thus agreed:
 First, for your honour's safety," &c. &c. &c.

In this passage, the poet has given full range to his imagination, and every horror of a guilty soul hereafter is brought forwards in its fullest exaggeration. Yet the comprehensiveness of the painting is not swelled out by perpetual similes and amplifications. For a contrast to this compression of language, which we might have instanced also in Shakspeare, Massinger, Ben Jonson, and Fletcher, we give the following quotation from Mr. Fitz-Eustace's play. Though its subject is not similar to that which we have cited, it will shew the marked dissimilarity of thought and expression to which we have adverted. Caracci, the usurping Duke of Milan, is soliloquizing on the hollowness and fallaciousness of human greatness.

'*Guido Caracci discovered writing.*

'*Caracci.* Make thou good speed with this to Mantua—

[*Addressing Attendant.*

And this to Lord Faenza—this to Naples:
 Hence—hie thee away, as though life and death
 Waited on thy despatch.

[*Exit Attendant.*

Have I then toil'd through honour and dishonour,
 With the most fix'd resolve—determined
 To place my name upon the beaming schedule
 Of trumpet-tongued renown—and what have I
 Found—ambition?—vanity of vanities!
 After having climb'd the glassy height,
 Have not I been studious of my bane—
 Furnish'd a feather for the arrow's wing,
 Wherewith to strike me—am I not depriv'd
 Of rest, of peace, of comfort, and of joy—
 Made my lot most bitter—complicated?—

Ev'n

Ev'n in success, my cars — turned each
 Friend into an enemy — and increas'd
 Their numbers by a boisterous crew being jealous
 Of my superior pow'r — and made myself
 The scope for envy's shaft — the aim for censure,
 The mark for biting calumny and hatred!
 Ah me — me — me! where now are the pleasures
 In which my heart would oft participate
 With youthful gladness — where now are the smiles,
 The welcoming laugh — the fond, heart-cheering look
 Which ever hail'd my near approach — to which
 My bosom gave a corresponding strain!
 These things have been — (have?) will they ne'er again
 Gladden my breast? Vain, vain, delusive hope!
 The old and gnarled oak, that hath been struck
 With Heav'n's blasting bolt, will not e'er again
 Burst forth in gay virescence — nor can I
 Be what I was! I once, too, had a friend —
 Rosanna! O God! I must not think of him!
 My daughter — must I sacrifice thee also!
 And this — all this — is thy work, ambition!
 O devil! that with an harlot's smiling face,
 Hath made me what I am — from what I was
 As chang'd as is the pure and unwrought gold
 From th' basest metal, or the ardent gaze
 Of the brave summer to the bloated form
 Of the anger-teeming cloud!
 Like as a traveller from a mountain views
 Thyself, imperial Florence! he beholds
 Thy cloud-aspiring turrets — and thy spires
 Glittering in the morning beam — thy domes
 Rising majestic — thy palaces
 Fit habitations for Rome's mightiest god,
 The cloud-compelling Jove — and thy temples
 Rear'd 'midst grandeur: but, oh! he doth not see
 The narrow alleys, and the wretchedness
 Hidden by so much beauty: — so the wretch
 Pursuing meteor ambition, is led on,
 Whose radiance at near approach doth fade,
 Even as the amber-weeping rainbow!

This countless brood of similes introduces confusion rather than illustration into a passage otherwise of considerable power. Why was it necessary, in order to shew the change which ambition had wrought in him, that he should have made himself 'the wrought gold changed from the basest metal,' which by the way would have been a change that he would have had no reason to deplore; then 'the gaze of the brave summer;' next 'an anger-teeming cloud;' and, lastly, like the traveller who sees Florence, &c. &c. &c., borrowed from a well-known and hackneyed simile in the Rambler?

The

The result of all this over-doing is feebleness, not strength; and, moreover, it is not in the style and spirit of the elder dramatists, the prototypes of the writer.

Great and extraordinary talent, however, is displayed in 'The Brides of Florence.' The ensuing scene is a dexterous imitation of the braggadocio-parasite, so common a character in the old English drama: but it is a faithful though by no means a tame copy, and therefore not intitled to the praise of originality.

' *Sir Jasper.* No more such piping, cousin — Art afeard?

' *Thrasso.* Afeard! afeard! now Heaven preserve us all,
The word is most aggrating to mine ears!

Afeard! ahem! an old soldado fear?
May all my sinews come to fiddle-strings,
But 'tis a wondrous thought! Did he of Troy,
My stalworth namesake, fear when that he crack'd
The pate o' the lusty Greek with 's quarter-staff?
By worthy Friar Rush! but I'm emmov'd
With violent laughter!

' *Sir Jasper.* Whensoe'er they come,
Give them a quarter-face, that they may see
Our heartfelt scorn! tal, la!, la!

' *Thrasso.* And a gentle blow,
That they may feel the prowess of this arm!
Vain braggarts, roysters, roaring boys in nought
But in their strength o' lungs! I will so mar —
And that right soon — their assum'd bravery:
By holy Nicholas, I do thirst for blood!

' *Sir Jasper.* Beat them, cousin, till they cry like school-boys
Whipp'd by a spice-brain'd pedagogue! Ah me!
Dishonour, sore dishonour! to have stol'n
From out our hoard the brightest gem we have —
And that with waking senses! Shame to manhood!

' *Thrasso.* But I'll avenge thee, Jasper! I have said —
Words are but air, and therefore worthless — then
Deeds, and not words, are seemly! Heav'n preserve me,
There is a something here that's ill at ease — [*Aside.*
But I must have a sweetly-temper'd patience,
Be playful with them, ere I give the blow!

' *Sir Jasper.* Lo, here they come — Tall fellows, Hector
Thrasso!

' *Thrasso.* Tall, say'st thou? — The bow-hand with a ven-
geance!
Mere skin and bones — all mortal — The plaguc take thee,
A sudden frost hath seiz'd on all my veins,
Curdling my very blood! — The varlets come —
Out, out, my long sword! Hem!

Enter Amaryllo, and Hilarion.

' *Hilarion.* Nay, but I will not hear thee! There they stand,
In stern array of battle — tilly-vally —

So, to the rescue! — Captain, fight'st thou thus —
 Why, 'tis a very boarding-pike — Is this
 What thou term'st small sword? — save the blessed mark,
 It were against all laws of the duello!

' *Amaryllo*. Come, Sir, my man of lath — for we must have —
 A glorious bout together — Draw thy sword,
 And give me valiant bearing!

' *Sir Jasper*. Here 's a fellow!
 A bloody-minded varlet — a huge monster! —

Why this is hot rebellion, thus to draw
 'Gainst the representative of majesty!
 Sirrah, know'st not my sacred character,
 That I have pow'r to lay thee in the stocks
 An if thou mov'st my choler — tal, la, la!

' *Amaryllo*. Now will I chink thy body, and let in
 The light o' day, to see of what thou 'rt made —
 So draw, Sir Valiance!

' *Sir Jasper*. Draw! that's easy said —
 Why, man, this thing 's for ornament, not use —
 Is it not pretty workmanship, i' faith?

' *Amaryllo*. I will divorce thy body from thy soul —
 Prepare thee for the sport!

' *Sir Jasper*. I like it not —
 The sport, in sooth, is too hot for my stomach —
 So, with your leave, fair gentlemen, I'll hence. [Exit.]

' *Hilarion*. Now, Sir Cholerick Vapour, shew thyself —
 Discredit not thine honour — bawl and scold —
 Thunder and lighten — Whither goest thou, pumption?
 [Thraso is walking away.]

Art thou so wedded to authority
 As is the tail unto the body? 'Tis
 Honour oftentimes to be thus —

' *Thraso*. Ha, ha, ha!
 A pretty joke, a marvellous witty joke —
 Faith, I shall die with laughter! Ho, you wags,
 Wherefore fight we to cut each other's throats?
 I possess the milk of human kindness —
 Would rather see ten merry faces round me,
 Than one dark-visag'd foe.

The monk Francis insults Rosanna in his captivity; and
 the scene of which we extract a part displays no ordinary
 powers of dramatic poesy, with the reservation only of the
 slight defects already noticed.

' *Enter Francis*.

' Ha! and who art thou?
 ' *Francis*. Know'st thou not me? Good Sir, I come to see
 How well the biting gyves become the limbs,
 The sleek and silken limbs of proud Rosanna! —
 My Lord, I am thy debtor; I do owe thee
 A debt so vast, thou'lt tremble when thou hear'st it —

And

And I would discharge it. I come not now
As the poor pitiful priest, whom once you spurn'd —
The poor and humble Benedictine monk —
But as one who sees his victim near !

' *Rosanna*. Villain, away ! thou torturest me — away !

' *Francis*. For that I came ! The star of the poor priest

Hath now th' ascendant ! I would pay thee as
A punctual paymaster — pay thee for all
Thy scoffs — thy jeerings — floutings — insults — all !
When thou, Lord, smiled in thy days of pride,
And heaped insults on me ! Dost thou think
Thou canst despise the gem-besparkling snake,
Contemning danger, 'cause thou canst not see
Its fiery sting ? Th' unfeeling Greeks of old
Laugh'd at their deep-besotted slaves — yet still
The slaves had hearts to feel the biting insults !
The wrinkles care hath furrow'd on the brow
May all be smoothed as the windless lake —
The tear of sorrow may be dried — the sigh
Of misery be stifled — and the groan
Of agony be turn'd to mildest laughter :
But scorn — cold, freezing scorn — ev'n as the asp
Can with its slightest puncture heat the blood,
Until each vein is fed with maddening poison —
Such as th' Athenian felt when scourg'd by furies —
Such as the old arch-murderer Cain endur'd
When that his brow was lightning-scath'd — thus — thus
Will icy scorn work on the frenzied soul !

' *Rosanna*. Thou hatest me, because I boldly strove
To countermine the arts thou practis'd on
The once noble and generous Caracci —
Because I boldly strove to burst in twain
The fetters with the which thou hadst obscur'd
His noblest pow'rs of mind — because I saw
Thy devil's hoof beneath the friar's cassock ! —
For this alone —

' *Francis*. Suffice to say, I hate thee —
And with a hatred so intense — so deadly —
That I myself do tremble when I think on 't
As one looking down a deep abyss ! —
Ay, hatred — cherish'd hatred, is a stream
Of course perennial — though it flow along,
Ev'n to time's ocean, still will it return
By channels imperceptible, unknown —
And gush to light again, pure, undefil'd !
Think'st thou a cassock'd priest doth not possess
Senses and quick perceptions ? — that he will not
Tread, when trodden upon — return venom'd.
Hatred for venom'd hatred — and endure
Insults, and kicks, and scoffs, and buffetings,
Like to a sleek-skinn'd spaniel, that can only

Evince his sense of pain by shrilly yelps?
 No, proud Lord; the fire, though long embowell'd
 Within the bosom of the earth, concentrates
 Its powers, and bursting forth spreads havoc round!
 O ye silver and immaculate stars!
 Ye altars, burning to creation's Lord
 With everlasting incense! — ye did hear me:
 And thou, O Dian! who amidst thy tears
 (Tears sacred to thy shepherd love) didst smile —
 Affrighted shrunk — when that thou heard'st the deep,
 Deep oath, with which I vow'd Rosanna's death!

We cannot pass over a short passage in the first scene of the fifth act. Here the author has attained great success in transfusing the beauties of the early writers into the dialogue, and it is conceived in the true spirit of poetry. The usurping duke, once the friend but afterward the betrayer of Rosanna, visits that high-minded nobleman in prison; and the former again sues for his friendship.

' *Caracci*. Yet would I save thee — nay, I feel revert
 My ancient friendship, which, like gems long hidd'n,
 Shine yet more brightly — and be thou my guide,
 To teach me mine affections how to cleanse,
 That I may be in heart regenerate,
 And, like Tithonus, gain my blooming youth!

' *Rosanna*. Once I possess'd a friend whose manly brow,
 Beaming as that of Pallas, was enshrin'd
 To noblest honour — and whose bosom was
 An altar consecrate to friendship — whose
 Heart was reserv'd for noblest purposes!
 This same friend —

Upon whose virtue I'd have 'gag'd my life —
 Upon whose actions I have mutely gaz'd
 Till sense was madden'd with ecstatic joy,
 To think such goodness was combin'd in man —
 Whose deeds were hymned by a thousand tongues —
 Whose looks were greeted by a thousand smiles —
 Whose steps were follow'd by applauding crowds,
 As though he were a godhead upon earth —
 Could not withstand a moment's short-liv'd trial —
 Pander'd his virtue for a worthless bauble —
 (Pow'r was that bauble) and inglorious fell!

' *Caracci*. Proceed, proceed — all, all do I deserve —
 Yet all were little!

' *Rosanna*. Oh Guido!
 We have been children, and have play'd together.
 Then, when our souls were uncontaminate!
 We have been school-boys, and have felt our breasts
 With emulation warm'd: we, side by side,
 The foremost ranks of battle have led on
 In youthful contest for the palm of merit,

Yet

Yet envying not the other's fame — and, oh !
 We twain have lov'd together, and have dwelt
 On each fond feature of our mistresses,
 Breathing our vows beneath the moonlit skies —
 Deeming them very paragons — (they were !)
 And forming schemes of future happiness !
 One hour beheld us husbands ! — We have seen
 Our joys reflected in the other's lot,
 As in a sleeping and a crystal lake ; —
 Basking in friendship's sunshine ! Doth my tale
 Bring back with magic skill the days of old ?
 Doth it then move thee ? Heav'n ! it doth — it doth !
 ' *Caracci*. Why doth th' Omnipotent delay to blast
 My head with his dread thunder ? Doth not Earth
 Open her hideous jaws, to swallow up
 A wretch so truly cursed ?

As to the plot of this drama, we cannot say much for it: the incidents are neither new nor striking: but we can conscientiously commend the poetic powers of the author, although we think that he has copied too much of the tumid and extravagant figures of Marlow. Those faults might be forgiven in that dramatist, because they constitute the common error of genius before just notions of taste prevail, and because they are outweighed by passages strongly evincing the fervid brilliancy of his imagination. In Decker, Mr. Fitz-Eustace would have found a better model; and a playful, interesting sweetness, more calculated to win the heart than the wilder and more irregular greatness of Marlow. We are, however, under great obligations to the present author for his learned and copious notes, which abound with particulars of our antient school of dramatic literature; and, as the history of every art is interesting, they cannot fail to give considerable satisfaction to those who take pleasure in contemplating the progress of the English theatre.

ART. III. *Letters from North America*, written during a Tour in the United States and Canada. By Adam Hodgson. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. Boards. Hurst and Co. 1824.

ART. IV. *An Excursion through the United States and Canada*, during the Years 1822 and 1823. By an English Gentleman. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1824.

WITHOUT intending to make any personal or offensive reflections, it may be permitted us to remark that those of our countrymen, who have *lately* published their travels over the United States and Canada, are of a higher and more trust-worthy class than several who undertook to be our guides

guides — and were actually our goads — in the choice of a settlement some few years back. Of the latter, it is well known that many were refugees, whom necessity, moral, political, or pecuniary, had driven across the Atlantic to economize their diminished fortunes or conceal their blighted characters. Man in secluded wilds is the most helpless and wretched of all animals; and such persons being naturally pressing in their invitations to others to join them, they described the music of the groves by which they were surrounded, and the murmur of the brooks which watered the smiling valley at their feet, in most melodious and alluring language. Others, delighting not in these solitudes, but preferring the haunts of men to the haunts of beasts, resorted to the towns and cities of the United States: but many of these went without a reputable introduction, some without *any*, and some with introductions which they afterward discredited by their own misconduct. Individuals of this description were not likely to be very well satisfied with their reception among a cautious, calculating, and industrious people; whom, accordingly, they have represented as suspicious and inhospitable, because they did not open their doors to be duped at discretion. Political predilections and antipathies have been another copious source of misrepresentation.

A short time since, (June last,) we noticed the respectable and amusing work of Mr. Duncan: who had a particular object in contemplation, namely, to delineate the state of literature, morals, and religion among the Americans, to which all others were subordinate and incidental. We have now before us the accounts of two more gentlemen, who have favored us with the result of their observations and inquiries. It appears that Mr. Hodgson (of Liverpool) travelled with commercial views, and in the course of sixteen months passed over 8000 miles of ground; that is, from the states of Maine to Louisiana, and back again: making also an excursion to both the Canadas. He visited Upper and Lower Canada, and traversed the United States from the northern to their southern extremity; comprehending the states of Maine, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Tennessee. He is free from all bigotry in politics and religion; and this freedom is not the offspring of indifference, but of liberal feelings and enlightened views. The great fault of his work is that it dwells too often and too long on trifles, and, we suspect, that he does not always appreciate the value of his authorities. Inquisitive himself, he sets as much store by information gathered at inns and log-houses as if it had

had been collected from his own experience, or confirmed under his own eyes; and he seems deficient in the essential quality of discrimination. Like many travellers, also, he sometimes extends his conclusions beyond the reach and compass of his premises. It is little better than preposterous for a man who has been only a few months, and during that time on the constant wing, in a region of immense extent, to undertake to classify the entire mass of its various and scattered population, as Mr. H. has done in a letter dated Philadelphia, October, 1820, before he had been a year in the country: — in the very same breath, too, acknowledging how unworthy of reliance are the conclusions of any single traveller, whose observations are necessarily limited, and probably ‘tinctured with his own mental peculiarities.’

‘If,’ says he, ‘we divide the Americans into classes, the first class will comprehend what are termed the revolutionary heroes, who hold a sort of patent of nobility, undisputed by the bitterest enemies to aristocracy. Their numbers, indeed, are few; but they have too many peculiar features to be embraced in the description of any other class of their countrymen. Many of them were educated in England; and even those who never travelled, had generally the advantage of the best English society, either colonial or military. They were formed in the English school; were imbued with English associations; and, however active they were in resisting the encroachments of the mother-country, they are, many of them at least, delighted to trace their descent to English families of rank, and to boast of the pure English blood which flows in their veins.’ —

‘The second class may include the leading political characters of the present day, the more eminent lawyers, the well-educated merchants and agriculturists, and the most respectable of the *novi homines* of every profession. It will thus comprise the mass of the good society of America; the first class, which comprehends the *best*, being very limited, *sui generis*, and about to expire with the present generation. The manners of this second class are less polished than those of the corresponding class in England, and their education is neither so regular nor so classical; but their intellects are as actively exercised, and their information at least as general, although less scientific and profound.’ —

‘The third class may comprehend all below the second; for in a country where some would, perhaps, resent even the idea of a second class, this division is sufficiently minute. This class will include the largest proportion of the American population; and it is distinguished from the corresponding classes of my countrymen (the little farmers, innkeepers, shopkeepers, clerks, mechanics, servants, and labourers,) by greater acuteness and intelligence, more regular habits of reading, a wider range of ideas, and a greater freedom from prejudices, provincialism, and vulgarity.’

The habitual use of ardent spirits is so general, that intoxication has been considered as the crying sin throughout the Union; and a traveller is better qualified to judge of the prevalence of a specific vice which, if it exists in any extent, must be exhibited in open day, than to divide the intellectual and moral surface of a vast community, with which he can at best have but a very imperfect acquaintance, into zones and parallels, as geographers divide the physical surface of the earth. Spirits, which are very cheap in America, are more used in the southern than the middle States, and more in the middle than the eastern. Decanters of brandy are placed, as a matter of course, on the dinner-tables at inns, without any additional charge to the guests: but Mr. H. says decidedly that, taking America from the Maine to Louisiana, intoxication is manifested there less extensively, and under forms of less odious aggravation, than in England. The prevalence of early marriages is doubtless the reason why immoralities of another description are less frequently committed than with us, or at least more assiduously concealed; and the cities of America, with the exception of New Orleans, present nothing of that disgusting effrontery and profligacy which the streets of our large towns exhibit at night. New Orleans, however, may yet be considered rather as a French or Spanish than an American city, and the French inhabitants have still an ascendancy in its councils: but this appears to be, in some measure, wearing away, and in a corresponding degree is its moral pollution declining also.

The wretched system of the laws respecting insolvency must have originated in an extreme laxity of what may be called commercial morals, and certainly has contributed to aggravate rather than abate the evil. Frauds and evasions are practised under the bankrupt regulations in England, but they are committed against the spirit of our laws, which are more defective in application than in principle. The following account of the state of mercantile irresponsibility in America is perfectly frightful:

‘ Such a thing as an equal division of the assets of the estate of an insolvent among his creditors I have never known, nor heard of; while in the majority of instances of insolvency, which have fallen under my observation, the insolvent has assumed and exercised the power of paying some creditors in full, and leaving others without a single farthing. An extensive merchant, of high standing in the community, who had been unfortunate, showed me a list which he had made out, of his creditors, of whom a certain number were to be paid in full, and the remainder to take their chance. (Some of the latter, I know, have never received a shilling.) On my remonstrating with him on the iniquity of such a system,

system, he said, that abstractedly, perhaps, it could not be defended; but that he should not be considered a fair trader, and certainly could not expect any support from his countrymen, if he pursued any other; that when the Americans lent each other money, or endorsed each other's notes, there was often a secret understanding, that the lender should, by some means or other, be secured from loss, in case of accident to the borrower. He attempted to draw some subtle distinctions between one kind of debt and another; but I observed the practical distinction was between those who were likely to be serviceable to him in future, and those who were not, whether Americans or foreigners. British merchants, who were in the habit of consigning goods to America, were to be paid in full. British merchants, on the other hand, who had lent him money for years, by honouring his drafts, were to be left to their fate. Some of these, who were large creditors, have been ultimately excluded from all participation in the estate, although the debt was acknowledged, and the property to be divided very extensive.'

The 'English Gentleman,' who has given us his 'Excursion,' may be almost termed a traveller by profession. Having passed over nearly the whole of Great Britain and Ireland; and a considerable part of Holland, France, Switzerland, and Italy, he visited the United States, for the purpose, chiefly, of indulging his curiosity, and of ascertaining the real character and condition of a country which is described in such various and contradictory terms. He had the luck to disembark at New York in the midst of the yellow fever, and to escape — not its contagion, for the doctrine of contagion seems to be exploded, but to escape uninfected. On his arrival, he found the streets that run down to the water all barricaded at their upper ends, and strewn with lime: the houses were deserted; and, out of a population of 120,000 inhabitants, not more than 7000 or 8000 remained in the city.

'For my own part,' says he, 'I wonder that the inhabitants are so seldom visited by this scourge. The town is very large, and is built on the flat point of the island, on a great deal of what was low marshy ground. There is no such thing in the whole place as a sink or common sewer. All the filth and soil is collected in pits, of which there is one in every house, and the very opening of which, when full, is enough to breed the plague itself. Moreover, their contents, instead of being carried to some distance from the town, are conveyed to the nearest slip or quay, and thrown into the water. As these slips, protruding from the quays, are very numerous, and are built of logs, the quantity of filth that is retained, and which the tide does not wash away, causes, in hot weather, a most abominable stench.'

'The streets in the lower part of the town are notoriously filthy, and the stranger is not a little surprised to meet the hogs walking
about

about in them, for the purpose of devouring the vegetables and offal that are thrown into the gutter.

The corporation of New York, however, seem to have seriously turned their attention to the police of the city; and will no doubt dispossess the hogs of their accustomed walks, and oblige the inhabitants to keep the streets and slips in a cleaner state. But what may also contribute to produce unhealthiness is the very foolish and absurd practice of burying the dead within the town. Some of the church-yards have become so full, that they are raised several feet above the level of the neighbouring streets. Indeed the bodies in many places have been buried three deep.

Philadelphia is much better managed in this respect; and in point of cleanliness, as well as in its manifestation of comfort and opulence, it is decidedly the handsomest and best-built city in America.

If new countries have much to learn from those that are old, the latter have much to forget, as well as something to learn from their younger brethren. "Charity begins at home," and so does cleanliness. Every Englishman who has lived fifty years must have remarked a wonderful difference in all our large towns now from their appearance when he was a young man, with regard to cleanliness. Close and crowded as our population is in many places, such general attention is paid to ventilation, (and would be as to light, but for the window-tax,) in the construction of new streets and houses, that the very poorest classes here are much more healthy than they were formerly. In our national schools of every description, the personal cleanliness of all the children is usually and most properly made a great object; and if a desire for cleanliness among these poor children is superinduced by the shame of being dirty in the presence of those who are otherwise, this feeling is carried into every cottage, and into every garret. The elegance and neatness of the domestic establishments of our nobility and gentry have diffused abroad a taste for neatness, which, indeed, may always be obtained, and for elegance also where it can be procured. The local authorities of almost every town in the kingdom have paid more attention to paving, lighting, and cleansing the streets, than was ever imagined in former times; and it is astonishing that any cities in America, where they are not cramped for space in building, and where population is comparatively thin, should be subject to the reproach of filth. All travellers, however, testify to the fact. — Some practices, also, among the Americans are to Englishmen excessively disgusting, and some of their usages shocking to our delicacy. The custom of hawking and spitting, and squirting tobacco-juice on the carpets and walls of their drawing-rooms, is of this number;

as also the usage at inns, and even at private houses, of having two or three beds in the same room, or offering a single bed to two gentlemen. At a Scotch settlement, near the White river, our 'English Gentleman' was delighted to find a good bed and a pair of *clean* sheets. 'I am particular,' says he, 'in noticing this luxury, because it was only in two other places that I enjoyed it during the whole of my travels in the states of Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri.' In general, the beds were altogether without sheets: sometimes he found one sheet, sometimes two, but generally dirty; and the blankets were as foul as the sheets.

It seems, then, that new countries must take a lesson of cleanliness from their elder brethren; and they must also look to them for stores of literature, science, philosophy, and the arts; for models of eloquence and poetry, of painting and sculpture. A taste for Greek and Roman literature, and for the study of philology and mathematics, is said to be manifesting itself in various parts of the United States. The Americans, indeed, are just now beginning to find time for such pursuits: hitherto, they have had something else to do.

The points on which *old* countries may learn from *new* are, economy of public expenditure, and the value of perfect freedom, civil, religious, and commercial. The commerce of the United States is so extensive, and so devoid of all restrictions, that they lay the whole world under contribution: shawls and muslins from India, — cottons from England, — lace, shoes, gloves, and silk from France, — and bonnets from Italy, — are all obtained with equal ease.

'There are no tithes, no poor-rates, no excise, no heavy internal taxes, no commercial monopolies. An American can make candles if he have tallow, can distil brandy if he have grapes or peaches, and can make beer if he have malt and hops, without asking leave of any one, and much less with any fear of incurring punishment. How would a farmer's wife there be astonished, if told that it was contrary to law for her to make soap out of the potass obtained on the farm, and of the grease she herself had saved! When an American has made these articles, he may build his little vessel, and take them without hinderance to any part of the world: for there is no rich company of merchants that can say to him, "You shall not trade to India; and you shall not buy a pound of tea of the Chinese; as, by so doing, you would infringe upon our privileges." In consequence of this freedom, the seas are covered with their vessels, and the people at home are active and independent. I never saw a beggar in any part of the United States; nor was I ever asked for charity, but once, and that was by an Irishman.' (*Excursion*, p. 71.)

America,

America, which scarcely had an independent existence forty years ago, is now the second commercial nation in the world. What has enabled this youthful giant to run its race so gloriously? What has imparted such strength to its arms, such vigor and velocity of action to all its members? The answer is, Free institutions and free trade: the life-blood of the body-politic circulates without the slightest interruption, and preserves the whole system in sound health. It is the unshackled state of domestic industry which gives to internal commerce that astonishing impulse in the first instance, which is communicated, in the second, to its external commerce. Every American may raise his own tobacco, make his own candles, convert his own barley into malt, and distil his own spirits, without dread of the excise-man, and may shoot his own partridges without fear of the informer. The Americans have no monopolies; and they impose none of those overwhelming duties which impede commerce, diminish the revenue, and serve as a premium to smugglers.

The author of the 'Excursion' has inserted, among his pregnant and entertaining pages, a statistical view of the commerce of the United States, for the year ending on the 30th of September, 1822, taken from the Report of the Secretary of the Treasury; whence it appears that the value of articles of every description imported in *American* vessels in the course of that year was 76,984,331*l.*, and of imports in *foreign* vessels, 6,257,210*l.*: making a total value of imports to the amount of 83,241,541*l.* The value of *domestic* exports in *American* vessels during the same period amounted to 39,931,913*l.*; and of *domestic* exports in *foreign* vessels, 9,942,166*l.*; forming a total of 49,874,079*l.* The value of *foreign* exports in the same year, in *American* vessels, was 20,783,655*l.*, and of *foreign* exports in *foreign* vessels, 1,502,547*l.*: making a total of foreign exports of 22,286,202*l.* Thus the grand total value of domestic and foreign produce exported was 72,160,281*l.*; while the total value of produce imported was 83,241,541*l.*

We have said that a taste for the classic literature of Greece and Rome is shewing itself in various parts of the United States; and the Americans began at the right end, taking the useful first, the ornamental last. We shall not go so far as to assert that schools for the common people are of greater importance than colleges for the rich; it will be less debatable to observe that they are equally so. It is only within a few years that schools "*for all*" have received the sanction and support "*of all*," among ourselves; and, as it is, national education, viz. pauper-education, is still more prevalent in

in America than in England. By the old laws of Connecticut, a hundred and fifty years ago, every county-town was compelled to keep an English grammar-school, under certain penalties which the grand jury at every county-court were bound to inflict; and the grand jurymen were obliged, once in a year at least, to visit each family if they had cause to suspect any negligence in this respect, and to satisfy themselves that all children under age, and *all servants*, were able to read the English tongue. A *property-tax* was levied on the inhabitants for the support of the school-master; and, if that fund was insufficient, it was made up by another levy, one half on the inhabitants of the town, and the other on the parents and masters of the children. At different times, considerable information respecting the extent of public schooling has been communicated in "The North American Review," from which the author of the 'Excursion' and Mr. Hodgson have both quoted; and a late number of that Review is now before us, whence we may gather some particulars about the schools in the state of New York. Mr. Hodgson copies from a former article of that work the following facts:

"All the public lands (in the new settled countries) are surveyed according to the laws and directions of Congress. They are uniformly divided into townships of six miles square, by lines running with the cardinal points, and consequently crossing each other at right angles. Every township is divided into 36 sections, each a mile square, and containing 640 acres. One section in each township is reserved, and given in perpetuity for the benefit of common schools. In addition to this, the states of Tennessee and Ohio have received grants for the support of colleges and academies. The appropriations generally in the new states for seminaries of the higher order amount to one-fifth of those for common schools." — *North American Review*, Oct. 2. 1821.

"It appears from Seybert's Statistical Annals, that the land in the states and territories on the east side of the Mississippi, in which appropriations have been made, amounts to 237,300,000 acres. And, according to the ratio above mentioned, the aggregate on the east side of the Mississippi is 7,900,000. The same system of appropriation applied to the west will make for schools and colleges 6,600,000; and the total appropriations for literary purposes in the new states and territories 14,500,000 acres, which, at two dollars per acre, would be 29,000,000 dollars." — *Ibid.*

Such appropriations are indeed magnificent, and we hope that they may be efficient: but in this country, since Mr. Brougham's exposure in the House of Commons of the maladministration of school-endowments, we cannot avoid mingling some portion of fear with our hopes. Public schools, indeed public charities of every description, stand most securely

curely when they stand, as it were, on two feet: let endowment be one foot, and let voluntary annual contribution be the other. If they rely on voluntary contributions alone, their supply must be very contingent: the ebb and flow of zeal, and fashion, and casualties of various kinds, combining to make that fund precarious, which, *to a given point*, should be certain. We say, to a given point only; because, if a public establishment exists exclusively on its endowment, and receives its dividends or its rents every quarter-day, it is very likely to live an idle life. Annuity-takers, to whom *sufficient for the year is the income thereof*, are proverbially lazy. Endowed establishments may find a Mr. Brougham to look after them once in a century, — not more; and he will be thwarted, foiled, and calumniated at every step, and chicanery will triumph in spite of him. The superintendant of the common schools in the State of New York has just published the annual Report for the year 1823: which informs us that 7382 school-districts, and consequently common schools, exist in this State; 331 *new* establishments having been formed and organized in the course of that year. The number of children instructed was 400,534; 25,861 more children having been educated in the year 1823 than in 1822. The expence varies a little in different counties: but only in three counties out of the fifty-four into which the State is divided did it exceed a dollar for each child; while in all the others it fell short of this amount. It is asserted in the Report that, in the State of New York, more than one fourth part of its entire population is receiving instruction annually in common schools alone. Can any part of the old world produce a parallel; unless, perhaps, it may be Scotland? This proportion, moreover, is not confined to the State of New York, for Connecticut and Massachusetts are nearly the same; and 'it is hardly too strong to say that in New England every individual possesses the means of being taught to read and write.'

Mr. Hodgson's book contains much interesting matter; although, as we have before said, it is too thickly sprinkled with trifles. He tells us, speaking of the Creek Indians, that the more reflecting of them think much, but say little, of the change which is taking place in their condition. They see plainly that, with respect to their future destiny, it is a question of civilization or extinction, the decision of which cannot long be postponed. They are therefore become very solicitous for the establishment of schools, as well as the introduction of the various arts from which the whites derive their superiority: and, in some of these, they have made considerable progress. While passing through their nat^l

Mr. H. saw several neat and flourishing little farms, and it is now not uncommon for an Indian to be the owner of several hundreds of cattle. He also met among these Indians the son of the owner of a principal inn at Preston, in Lancashire, projecting the introduction of a woollen manufactory among the Creeks, under the sanction of the natives. — Mr. Hunter has told us that extinction or civilization is the destiny of the American Indians: he is gone back to his foster-brethren, with the benevolent view of warding off the first by introducing the second; and we cannot but feel pleased with the preceding account of the Creeks, because it gives us hopes that he may find many other tribes with the same disposition to convert the tomahawk and the scalping-knife into plough-shares and pruning-hooks.

Slavery is the plague-spot of America. ‘I lately saw in the newspapers,’ says Mr. Hodgson, ‘a notice from the mayor of one of the principal cities of the south, presenting an extract from the law which prohibits the instruction of slaves, expressing his regret to observe that this law had been infringed upon in several instances lately, by teaching the slaves to read and write; and declaring his intention to inflict the penalty if the offence should be repeated.’ The following paragraph also appeared in a Charleston paper of 1823: — “The grand jury of Charleston present as a nuisance the number of schools which are kept within the city by persons of colour; and believe that a city-ordinance prohibiting, under severe penalties, such persons from being public instructors, would meet with general approbation.” So much for the enlightened spirit of the slave-holders! — This plague-spot is, in some parts, happily wearing out; and in the New-England States not a vestige of the pollution remains. In New York and Pennsylvania, emancipation has been systematically proceeding for years, and there it will very soon be complete. Slavery exhibits itself in other parts of America, ‘in those intermediate and transitive states which are at once a gradual approach to freedom and an excellent preparation for it.’ To the great disgrace of the American government, however, it permitted the territory of Missouri to become a slave-state when it was admitted into the Union in 1821; and nothing is more disgusting than to see a nation, which boasts of its freedom and talks loudly about the rights of man, allowing personal slavery. To the honor of the people of New England, they turned out such of their representatives as did not oppose this unnatural union of slavery and democracy. In the English gentleman’s ‘Excursion,’ we have an interesting chapter on the subject of slavery; from w

we are compelled to predict a long continuance of the evil, or a desperate effort to destroy it. The United States have abolished the slave-trade, it is true, says he, but they have a little Africa within themselves. It is computed that, every year, from 10,000 to 15,000 slaves are sold from the States of Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia, and sent to the south: driven in gangs, chained to one another, while the white drivers ride by their side, armed with whips and pistols. When they arrive at the town at which they are to stop, the slaves are confined in the jail, and their drivers go to the tavern. Slave-auctions are daily occurrences.

A political economist would predicate the injurious effects of slavery, from the circumstance that slaves are always fed and clothed in the very coarsest and cheapest manner. A slave-population, therefore, can never create a demand for labor or merchandise: slavery is a complete check to the building of towns and villages; and in the slave-States, towns consist of little more than a blacksmith's shop, a small store, and a tavern. The following are startling facts:

Virginia, at the time the United States became independent, was the most populous and by much the most wealthy State, but it now holds a very inferior rank. By the census of 1790, it appears that Virginia contained 442,117 whites, and 292,627 slaves. The State of New York, at the same time, contained 318,796 whites, and 21,324 slaves. By the census of 1820, Virginia contained 618,222 whites, and 428,152 slaves; and New York 1,372,812, of which only 10,000 were slaves, and these decreasing every year. Virginia would have contained many more slaves, but numbers are every year sold out of the state and sent to the south. Maryland, in 1790, had 217,649 free whites; Pennsylvania, 424,099. In 1820, Maryland had only 266,483 free whites, and 39,730 free coloured; while Pennsylvania had 1,040,395, of which only 7557 were slaves. This may be seen in a still stronger light, by contrasting the State of Ohio with that of Virginia: the latter the oldest, first settled State of America, while the former has only existed as a State since the year 1802. By the census of 1820, Ohio contained 576,714 free whites, and Virginia only 618,222. (*Excursion*, p. 203.)

In 1790, the whole number of slaves in the United States was only 690,480; but in 1820, they amounted to 1,531,436; and in addition there were 233,398 free people of color. At the time of framing the Constitution, it was asserted that in every State the number of the whites was double that of the blacks: but at present the blacks are more numerous than the whites in South Carolina; while in several of the other States they are already nearly equal, and are every day approaching to a superiority. It appears from a table of the

white and coloured population of the several states, that the total white population in 1810 amounted to 5,862,093, and in 1820 to 7,872,504, giving an increase of 2,010,411. Also, that the colored population in 1810 amounted to 1,377,810, and in 1820 to 1,778,050, being an increase of 400,240. There is, consequently, an average increase of about 34 *per cent.* on the white, and of 29 *per cent.* on the black population.

“ It appears by the table, that the ratio of increase of the whole white population in the United States has been somewhat greater than that of the whole coloured population; but if we separate the free coloured from the slave population, it will no doubt be found, that the slaves increase faster than the whites; and if we separate the whites in the free States from those in the slave States, it will no doubt be found, that the slaves increase nearly twice as fast as the whites in the slave States. If this is to continue to be the case, what will be the condition of the southern States a few years hence? This fact ought to excite the apprehension of our southern brethren, and they will do well to look to it.”

‘ The slaves multiply faster than the whites. First, because they come sooner to maturity. Secondly, because the young white men cohabit with the black and mulattoe women to an extent scarcely credible. Thirdly, because there is no restraint on unions among the slaves, whose masters encourage promiscuous intercourse, as their wealth increases with the increase of their negroes. Fourthly, and this perhaps is the most important reason of any, because the slaves are not affected by the climate as the whites are.’

The Americans are noted for their migratory disposition, and it is well known that the tide of population is flowing westward. Nothing, indeed, is more astonishing than the rapid rise and progress of the Western States in the scale of civilization. The spot on which Lexington stands was, forty years ago, a complete wilderness, inhabited only by the buffalo and the elk, and used by the wild Indians as a hunting-ground. An old hunter told our *Excursionist* that he had himself seen several thousand buffaloes assembled in the spring of the year at one time: but cultivation is now so extended, that not a single buffalo is to be found within five hundred miles of the place. Surely the same resistless implement of wild animal destruction will in time drive away the countless myriads of squirrels, which commit such ravages on the Indian corn in the States of Ohio and Indiana, and desolate the shores of Virginia and Kentucky. One party of hunters destroyed upwards of 19,000 of these animals in a single week, and whole legions of them were at the same time killed while crossing a river, by dogs and boys. A curious fact in the natural history of the squirrel is related by

this author, namely, *juniores senioribus castrantur*. The old hunters told him that they had often seen the old males pursue the young, and perform this operation with their long front teeth; and, on shooting them, he observed that many had apparently suffered the deprivation. *

Mr. Hodgson and the *Excursionist* differ entirely as to the character and efficacy of the missionaries who have gone among the Indians. The former, who has considerable *unction* about him, writes a letter from one of their settlements on the Yaloo Busha; in which he gives a very favorable view of their labors, and relates the progress of several children in reading, writing, singing, and praying, at a school established by them at that place. At another settlement in the Tennessee, he found eighty Cherokee children, who, likewise, were instructed in the labors of the field as well as of the school and the orchestra. This is right: but the missionaries are too often fanatical and ignorant methodists; who, instead of teaching the Indians useful arts, and pointing out to them the advantages of civilization, begin by requiring them, under the pains of damnation, to believe in the most incomprehensible jargon, mixed up with the most revolting doctrines. The 'English Gentleman' went to hear a sermon delivered by some of these preachers, who were going into the wilderness for the purpose of converting the Aborigines; and a conversation having arisen between the preachers and their audience on some doctrinal points, the former declared that the elect alone would be saved, while the multitude would be inevitably damned. Continuing the subject, they affirmed that among the crowds of non-elect many children were included; and that there were infants in hell not a span long. The Missionaries are also in general men of low education, for few will sally into the woods who can find employment at home. On the other hand, the Indians are a most acute and intelligent people, and readily give their assent to all good arguments in favor of practical morality: but they are very sceptical as to mysteries and miracles, and have somewhat confused notions about grace and election, predestination and regeneration, notwithstanding all the holy and the learned instructions which they receive from their spiritual teachers.

* Mr. Talbot, in his account of Canada, says, "It is a singular circumstance that five out of six of these animals (the *grey* squirrel) are castrated; and it is still more singular, that this operation is performed by the *black* squirrels, which appear to be in a state of perpetual warfare with their *grey* brethren." (Vol. i. p. 216.)

On one point the two authors before us are perfectly agreed, viz. that scarcely one emigrant in a hundred from England can be found who has not bitterly repented of having left his country, when he finds himself alone in the western wilds of the United States, or on their northern frontier in the Canadas. Respecting emigration, some useful calculations and remarks are offered by each of these gentlemen: who both visited Harmony, Mr. Rapp's settlement *, and that of Mr. Birkbeck at Albion. Mr. Hodgson gives a very unfavorable account of the plan adopted by the British government to induce emigrants to settle in Upper Canada; and he says that so many fees are to be paid, and so much disappointment and uncertainty occur about every thing *but expence*, that he never conversed with one single person who did not affirm that a settler had much better buy land, than receive it as what is called a *gift* from government.† Public lands are parcelled into townships, which are divided into lots of a hundred acres each. When an emigrant has chosen his township, he receives *by lot* a location-ticket for a particular hundred acres, on the condition that he is not to dispose of them for three years, that he clears five acres in each hundred, and that he makes half of the road in front. On reaching Quebec, instead of finding himself on the borders of his estate, he learns with astonishment that he is yet five hundred miles from it; and should he be unprovided with money, he will have to encounter far more severe distress in reaching his allotment than he had ever felt at home.

' When the emigrant,' says Mr. H., ' arrives at the Land-Office where he proposes to settle, determined perhaps in his choice by the hope that his lot will place him in the vicinity of an old acquaintance, he may probably have to wait some weeks before the next distribution takes place; during which he must be supporting himself at an expence increased by his ignorance of the manners of the country. He then learns, perhaps for the first time, that there are certain fees to be paid at the different offices through which his papers must pass. I have a list of these before me in which they are stated to be,

' For 100 acres	-	-	-	£5	14	1
200 do.	-	-	-	-	16	17 6
500 do.	-	-	-	-	39	19 9
1000 do.	-	-	-	-	78	10 2

*. Lately sold, as we are informed, to Mr. Owen of New Lanark.

† This opinion is confirmed by Mr. Talbot, whose work we noticed in our last Number. That gentleman complains bitterly of the enormous fees charged by government, and asserts that it is "infinitely better" to purchase land of individuals than to receive it from the government Land-Office as a gift.

'I was, however, informed by several persons from York, with whom I crossed Lake Ontario, one of whom said he was in the habit of transacting this business for the emigrants, that, for a hundred acres, the fees were 13*l.* 10*s.*'

After all, it is very likely to happen that his allotted acres are not worth having; they may be a hundred acres of rock, or swamp, or water; in which case he must pay two persons for certifying that they are irreclaimable, and then take his chance at another distribution! Suppose, however, the heart-broken emigrant to have arrived at the land of promise:

'Even then his situation is most dreary, especially if he has no neighbour within a reasonable distance, and has to purchase and carry his provisions from a remote settlement. But if he has no money to procure food; if he has a wife and family to provide for, without the forlorn hope of parish assistance; if he is a weaver or a spinner, accustomed to warm rooms, and to employments little calculated to impart either the mental or physical qualifications essential to his very support; if he is, in fact, of a class to which a large proportion of the poor emigrants from Great Britain belong, I can hardly conceive any thing more distressing than his sensations, when, arriving on his new estate, with an axe in his hand and all his worldly goods in his wallet, he finds himself in the midst of a thick forest, whose lofty trees are to be displaced by a labour almost Herculean, before he can erect the most humble shelter, or cultivate the smallest patch. And if at such a time he has further to anticipate the rigours of a long Canadian winter, his situation must be deplorable in the extreme.'

Grain must, for a long time, be the staple product of new settlers: but the production will very soon so far exceed the consumption as to lower the price to a level with the cost. For several years, the average price of wheat in Upper Canada has been about 5*s.* per bushel: but it is lower on the American shores of the Lake, and will of course be smuggled over whenever the difference of price is sufficiently tempting. Mr. H. says, too, that the depreciation of real property throughout the Union is perfectly astonishing; and that sales are sometimes forced at an incredible sacrifice of property. In Richmond it has fallen from 50 to 75 per cent., and in Baltimore from 30 to 40. He attributes this, however, to the facility with which money has been advanced by banks to speculators, on landed security, which has become forfeited by the non-fulfilment of their engagements: but such a cause can only have a local and temporary effect. The want of a market for superabundant production is the real origin of the depreciation, first, of grain,—and, secondly, of the land which produces it. Our *Excursionist* says, that 'the agriculturists
of

of all the Western States have suffered nearly as much as the same class of people in Great Britain: Mr. Birkbeck has participated in the general calamity; and it is well known that he does not possess as many dollars at this moment as he did pounds sterling when he left England.' (P. 163.) Agriculture is recovering in England, because our manufacturing classes are in a state of prosperity: but, in the western territories of America, it will be a long while before such a market can be found. Mr. Hodgson (vol. ii. p. 65.) has given some account of Mr. Birkbeck's operations; and, *if he be correct*, Mr. B. has not only grown nothing like the quantity of corn which he expected, but the value of it is so very much depreciated since his arrival, that he actually *purchases* flour at Harmony, eighteen miles distant, rather than grow wheat. He is now turning his attention to grazing; — which, we should fear, is just as likely to deceive him as corn-growing. That which he wants to rear is a manufacturing population, to earn as well as eat. In Mr. B.'s estimate of profit, he takes wheat at 75, and Indian corn at 40 cents, *per* bushel: but in Kentucky, and Ohio, wheat is at 25 to 33, and Indian corn at 12½ cents *per* bushel. Farms in that neighbourhood are increasing both in magnitude and number; and the settlers are now making an effort to export their produce by loading flat boats with corn, flour, pork, beef, sausages, &c.: floating them first down the Wabash, and thence down the Mississippi to New Orleans; a distance of eleven hundred miles!

The author of the *Excursion*, who is a very clear-headed man, and not easily deceived by varnished tales, says that any person, who has a prospect even of making a decent livelihood in England, would be a fool or a madman to remove to the Illinois: but if the circumstances of any men are so desperate and so hopeless that they *must* emigrate, he recommends, as decidedly preferable, the State of New York, or Canada, or Pennsylvania, not only on account of their proximity to markets, but because the climate is incomparably more healthy.

' There is one class of people, however, whom I must on no account dissuade from emigration, I mean the poor Irish. Never, in all my travels, have I seen any set of people who are so wretched as these. The poorest Swiss or German peasant is rich and well off compared to them. Persecuted, and put almost out of the pale of the law, on account of their faith; obliged, when almost starving, to stint themselves in food, in order to support a religion they abhor; living on roots; often not having enough even of these; and probably not tasting bread or meat once a year; — surely such men cannot but find any change advantageous. I verily believe,

believe, that the poorer class in Kerry are no better off, and no more civilized, than when Ireland was first conquered by Earl Strongbow. If they could emigrate *en masse*, they would become superior beings; and I would strongly advise every one of them, who possesses the means of getting to the sea-side, to work or beg his passage over, and go where he may, so that at all events he may quit his native island, — that den of human wretchedness.

With this melancholy extract, and more melancholy because the picture is drawn from life, we take our leave of a work which we have read with profit and recommend with pleasure: closing also the volumes of Mr. Hodgson, which we have already sufficiently characterized. Respecting these, however, we should add that vol. ii. is supplied with a copious Appendix, containing Sea-journals and other papers, among which is the extraordinary narrative of the loss of a Nantucket whale-ship, and the sufferings of the crew who escaped in their boats. The ship was actually attacked, with warrior-like and apparently instinctive hostility, by a large spermaceti whale, which twice struck it forwards with its head with such amazing force as stove in its bows, and caused it to go down. The relation almost startles belief, but appears sufficiently authenticated.

ART. V. *A Practical Essay on the Manner of Studying and Teaching in Scotland; or, a Guide to Students at the University, to Parish Schoolmasters, and Family Tutors. In Two Parts. Small 8vo. pp. 308. 5s. Boards. Printed at Edinburgh, and sold by Underwoods, in London.*

THAT the acknowledged superior moral deportment of the people of Scotland, compared with the community of other countries, is mainly attributable to the establishment of parochial schools, and to the diffusion of education among the lower orders, will scarcely admit of dispute: but the rapidity of the metamorphosis in the national character, which has been effected by these means, is worthy of the serious meditation of the political economist. We shall, therefore, enter into the subject of the volume before us at some length: premising that we have ourselves made inquiries relative to it, and in consequence have obtained information on which we can rely. The anonymous writer observes:

‘The exalted character of the Scots is but of recent date. In 1698 the state of the country was still worse than that of Ireland at the present day. Besides the parish poor, there were two hundred thousand people that went about begging; and though the

the number was larger than usual at that period, there were never fewer than one hundred thousand vagabonds in the country, who lived without any regard to the laws of the land, or even of God and nature. Fathers incestuously accompanied with their daughters, the son with the mother, and the brother with the sister. No magistrate could discover in what way one in a hundred of these wretches died, or that ever they were baptized. Many murders were discovered among them; they robbed the poor people who lived in remote places; and at country weddings, markets, and burials, multitudes of them, both men and women, were continually seen drunk, cursing, blaspheming, and fighting. In years of plenty, thousands of them assembled in the mountains, where they spent many days in riot and debauchery. What has become of this numerous race? They have gradually died away, and the new generation, being brought up in the knowledge and the fear of God, have not supplied their place. Yet it would be hard to say what advantages Scotland has possessed over England, except her parish schools, and the absence of tithe and poor-tax. The introduction of poor-laws has reduced a few districts of Scotland as low as her less fortunate sister-kingdom. The inhabitants of Westmoreland, where schools are as numerous as to the north of the Tweed, enjoy an equally exalted character.'

Impressed with these striking views of his subject, the writer, who is evidently a man of good sense and intelligence, displays a laudable solicitude to recommend such improvements in the modes of conducting public and private tuition in the northern portion of the island, as his own reflections and experience have suggested. We think that the most learned and accomplished Professor may not disdain to derive hints from his statements; and, even when we may be disposed to question the accuracy of some of his strictures, we cordially assent to the general scope and spirit of his reasoning. The first part of the treatise relates to study at the University, and the second to teaching in a school, or in a family. If the inverse order should appear, at first sight, to be the most natural and desirable, the writer is not without his apology: 'The instruction of children,' he says, 'should naturally come first in order in a treatise on education. The reason for departing from that arrangement in the present instance is, that the preceding part is more particularly addressed to the pupils, and this to the teachers; and as these are only the same persons at a more advanced period, so the order which in other cases would be preposterous here becomes natural.'

In the general observations on the Scottish Universities, the essayist chiefly refers to an alleged relaxation of discipline, to the superficial examinations for the degree of Bachelor or Master of Arts, to the limited duration of the College-Session, and to the immature age at which boys are permitted to

enter on their academical career. The increasing population of the country, the permanent establishment of the Reformation, the expansion of the systems of public teaching, and the change which has gradually taken place in the modes of living and in the general style of society, have necessarily deprived these venerable institutions of their monkish and scholastic character: but we are much deceived if the exertions of the teachers and of the taught are not more useful and efficient at the present day, than they were during the earlier periods of the history of these seats of learning. Many grave personages, we are aware, still lay much stress on the compulsory residence of young men within the walls of their Colleges: but it has, we believe, been found by experience that they are less addicted to riot and dissipation, grow more conversant with the world, and become more familiar with the offices of life, when scattered over the adjacent town in private lodgings or boarding houses.

Again, the essayist laments, in terms somewhat too unqualified, the want of public examinations, and of personal exertion on the part of the student. We have, indeed, been informed that, in one of the seminaries in question, students of philosophy are not interrogated on the subject of the public lecture: but that, in the others, stated hours are allotted to examination, and also to the critical review of exercises prescribed. The plan which was long since adopted by the venerable Professor Jardine has not been overlooked by his colleagues, nor by such of his former pupils as have been called to fill chairs in other Universities; while the number and the general merit of the voluntary contributions, in the form of regular compositions, on the part of the students, sufficiently attest their diligence, zeal, and talents. At the annual public examination, also, which is termed the *Black Stone Profession*, under-graduates have construed many of the Greek and Latin classics, *ad aperturam*, in a manner that would confer credit on hoary tutors. We suspect, however, that there is too much ground for the insinuation that degrees in arts are obtained on too easy terms; since few if any candidates, we have been told, are rejected, however lame may be their pretensions;—and we have heard of apologies for the exercise of these tender mercies: but, surely, no ideas of false delicacy should be allowed to perpetuate the abuse of literary honors. With regard to the proposed prolongation of the term of attendance on the courses of public study, difficulties on the part of the parents obviously present themselves, since many of them cannot afford to maintain their sons at a distance from home, even for
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the present period of five or six months; and, were the session extended to eight or ten, the Professors would probably lecture, during the last two or three, to empty benches. Even on the present footing, a reprehensible laxity prevails of admitting students so late as December or January, and allowing them to depart with certificates in March or April; and we have been assured that, in one of the Universities at least, not only is the record of *intrants* kept open till the *first of February* by *special regulation*, but the case of applications *after that date* is still left open to the discussion of the University meeting. The Professors themselves are, in their aggregate capacity, perfectly competent to *put a period* to such fragmentary sessions; and they should not shrink from the performance of such an imperious duty. Let public lectures be at all times accessible to every individual who may be desirous of deriving instruction from them: but let not attendance during only two or three months be held equivalent to a *bonâ fide* session of six. On a point of such vital importance to the community, the conductors of a seminary of learning can scarcely exercise too rigid a control; and, although the enforcement of efficient attendance may occasionally bear hard on individuals, it would infallibly contribute to the benefit of the many.

We entirely unite with the Essayist in reprobating the growing evil of putting boys to College at nine, ten, or even eleven years of age; not only because the first two classes of the academical *curriculum* are thus degraded to the level of elementary grammar-schools, but because the pupils are severed from their *alma mater* precisely at the period when their mental faculties are beginning to unfold. 'It would be highly desirable not to admit students before a certain age; or if that should be thought a hardship on parents, why should not the Geneva plan be adopted, of allowing no one to enter a class without showing, by a previous examination, that he was fit for it?' Such seems to have been the original design of the Black Stone Profession; which still gives room for the display of talent and application, but which has, in too many instances, dwindled into an unmeaning ceremony.

With reference to those debating societies which are formed among the students themselves, we would not advocate their indiscriminate abolition; because, when properly framed and regulated, they are productive of real advantage: nor do we think that their existence is incompatible with the other description of association which the author recommends in their stead, which might be easily adopted with every prospect of success. Yet, as it does not seem to have occurred

to the directors of education in the northern part of the island, we shall communicate it in his own words. He proposes, then, that

‘ Each class should subdivide itself into small companies, varying in number from six to ten. These are to meet together, at stated hours, once or twice a day at each other’s lodgings, to assist one another in preparing and recapitulating their lessons. Numerous rules are not necessary for such a society. It is sufficient that they agree to meet at a fixed hour; to introduce no conversation foreign to the design of the institution; never to use disrespectful language; and never to mention abroad what is said or done at their meetings. There is no necessity for distinctions or punishments, further than excluding those who are turbulent; no officers; no register of transactions; nothing, in a word, that may occasion expense or loss of time. The object is merely to prepare the next lesson; to elucidate what may have been imperfectly understood in the preceding; to recapitulate from time to time what may have been already learned; in a word, to make one another as much master of the subject as possible.

‘ The extreme youth of our students, and their total ignorance of most of the subjects taught at college, make it desirable to have some other means of information than the Professor’s lectures. In fact, it is utterly impossible for them to learn any thing well without books; but these are now so expensive, as to be beyond the reach of the greater number of our students. Such an association as is here proposed might purchase a book for their common use; or what is better, when they can accomplish it, each might purchase a different book. Thus, one may have Beattie’s *Elements of Moral Science*, another Reid’s, another Stewart’s works on the same subject. Each will study most his own work, but will also read occasionally those of his colleagues, for the sake of comparison, and will thus have the means of becoming acquainted with more works at no greater expense than at present.

‘ The necessity of the aid of a private tutor is now generally acknowledged; but many young men are not only deprived of it, but obliged to dedicate a part of their time to giving lessons, which proves another great drawback to their improvement. But six or seven young men associating together would easily find a student in a higher class, who, for a consideration that would be a trifle to each, would attend them an hour in the evening, while they went over their lessons. Were they to give him only a guinea each, he would find it more profitable than to give the same time to private teaching. A student, acting as assistant and superintendent to a small society in this manner, would have an opportunity of revising last year’s course, and of increasing his means of subsistence, which is an object of very great importance to many highly deserving young men. It would be desirable that separate examination were established at the beginning of each session, to ascertain those who are fit to act in the capacity of private teachers. No one who has ever been a member of the

college, has gone through the class, and has nothing objectionable in his moral conduct, should be refused admittance to these examinations; and the names of those who distinguish themselves should be published, to let each student know who is most capable of directing any particular department of his labours.

‘The duty of the private teacher is to assist the students in preparing themselves for the Professor’s examinations. He is to hear them read their lessons, and discuss with one another any point of difficulty, taking care that they have made at least some efforts to get over it before he explains it. He must also assist those who attend any of the physical classes, in making their experiments. He must, above all, show the connexion between each part of their course, and at every step refer to the preceding rules and principles that are connected with it. He must also examine his pupils from time to time, to see that they have forgotten nothing. There are many little things that a professor cannot take notice of, but which, however, it is necessary to know, to understand the subject thoroughly. These he will, of course, be expected to explain. He will also be able to make many things clearer by placing them in a different light. In a word, his duty is a supplement to the Professor’s; not to teach any thing new, but to assist the students in comprehending and fixing on their memory the lessons which have been already set before them in the lecture-room.’

In accompanying the pupil through the several stages of a college-education, the author commences with Greek, which he represents as forming ‘the subject of the first year of the University-course:’ but this requires explanation; for, although that language *generally* constitutes a *part* of the student’s occupation during his first session, it does this only in conjunction with *Latin*, which is properly the first class in the order prescribed; and some even postpone the Greek till the second year. All candidates for orders in the Presbyterian church are required to produce certificates of their having regularly attended the Latin, Greek, and Philosophy classes, before they can be enrolled as students of divinity. We find it also loosely stated that, ‘in some colleges, there is a professor of Latin:’ when the fact is that every one of the Scottish Universities has an established professor of that language; and that, with the exception of St. Andrew’s, there are no separate colleges within the same University. — The writer seems, moreover, to be inaccurate in alleging that ‘the *third* class is *commonly* dedicated entirely to natural philosophy;’ for, if Latin be the exclusive occupation of the *first* year, natural philosophy becomes that of the *fifth*; or, if Latin and Greek be combined in the same session, (which is now the more ordinary routine,) then it forms the business of the *fourth* year. It is subsequently admitted that, *in some colleges,*

colleges, moral is taught before natural philosophy : but this is the case in *most* of them, unless (which rarely happens) the student prefers to apply to physics in the first instance. Yet, on the Baconian principle that the study of matter ought to precede that of mind, we would suggest the propriety of ranking natural history, botany, chemistry, and natural philosophy, in the course even before logic.

We pass over the hints which the author furnishes to the student as he proceeds in his labors, and the directions for the right performance of daily tasks during the recess ; because, though they are highly valuable to the parties concerned, they will naturally occur to an intelligent tutor or guardian, and cannot be fairly communicated in an abridged form.

The first part of the following assertion appears to have been precipitately hazarded : ‘ The most prominent difference between the Universities of England and Scotland is the almost exclusive attention paid in the former to languages, with a very limited portion of mathematics ; while, in the latter, a knowledge of things is considered equally, if not more necessary to a learned education.’ It may be conceded that, at Oxford, classical literature is more an object of pursuit than mathematical learning : but the examinations for honors at that distinguished seminary sufficiently attest that the candidates must acquire a knowledge of many other things besides Greek and Latin ; and the reputation of Cambridge for mathematics will not be easily obscured. Moreover, the position that ‘ no manual calculated for a natural-history class has hitherto been published’ struck us as inconsiderate : but the very next sentence conveys at least some vague notion of the author’s meaning : ‘ We have excellent works on Chemistry, Mineralogy, Botany, and other branches, but none that comprehends a general view of the whole compressed into a narrow space, so as to contain, at a moderate expence, what the young student wishes to know, without being a naturalist by profession.’ Now, here we confess that we are somewhat bewildered. Are we to infer that Chemistry and Botany are to be included in Natural History ; and does the expression *other branches* imply more than Zoology ? A trim and connected syllabus of all these departments of knowledge is scarcely less chimerical than the object of the Frenchman’s request to Lord Mansfield, to favor him with *une idée nette et précise des loix d’Angleterre*. If, on the other hand, Natural History is to be limited, as it now generally is, to *Geology*, in its enlarged acceptation, and to *Zoology*, guides and introductions are not wanting.

In the section on English Composition, although condensed within a few pages, we find very useful suggestions both to tutors and pupils. The scholar can scarcely be too early initiated in the important exercise of expressing his thoughts on paper, and in his native language; and this exercise should be continued through the whole course of University-education. That it is too much neglected in some quarters will be readily conceded: but the great number of prescribed and of voluntary essays, given in by the students to their respective professors in the College of Glasgow, is said to form a striking exception to the general remark.

We agree with the author in thinking that professorships in modern languages, and in belles lettres, would form valuable additions to the system of teaching pursued in the northern Universities; and we thoroughly approve of his admonitions relative to the health and conduct of students, which manifest solidity of judgment and correctness of feeling: but they might with more propriety have been inserted among the preliminary observations, instead of breaking the order of public studies.

An inaccuracy in point of fact occurs at p. 110., where it is virtually asserted that no student can be admitted to the Divinity-Hall without presenting his diploma: but a very small proportion of Scottish students ever proceed to the degree of M. A.; and no diploma, properly so called, is required as a testimonial by the Professor of divinity: but he is enjoined by the laws of the church to have evidence of attendance on the five classes of the public course, namely, Latin, Greek, Logic, Moral, and Natural Philosophy.

The author's instructions for training candidates for the church are given at some length, yet not with too much minuteness. They form, indeed, one of the best sections in the volume; while they are so plain and obvious as to require no comment. We shall only observe that there are preaching and praying societies connected with the theological schools, some of them of old standing; a circumstance of which the author seems not to have been aware. His views of the department of medical study are generally correct, but the ensuing proposal seems to originate in some misconception:

‘ Instead of making a part or the whole of the time of the apprenticeship correspond with the college-course, and thus giving a divided attendance to both, it would be much better to dedicate the last two years of the latter almost exclusively to the study of natural history. To facilitate this, it would perhaps be an improvement in our colleges, to give particular degrees to those who are intended for medicine; which might enable them to take the degree of M. D. without studying moral philosophy, or soliciting an exemption.

exemption. The candidates ought, in that case, to undergo a very strict examination in the physical sciences and classics, and be sent back to study them whenever they are found deficient, instead of making those trials, as at present, only an excuse for the *promotor* receiving his two guineas. Till this be done, the teachers of medicine ought not to admit an apprentice, till he prove, by undergoing a strict examination, that he has received the necessary preliminary education, and possesses sufficient diligence and application not to disgrace the profession or his masters.

We do not understand that candidates for the degree of M. D. are under any positive obligation either to study Moral Philosophy, or to solicit exemption from such a study; nor is it consistent with our knowledge that they are examined on the physical sciences, or the classics: but a practice has long prevailed, if we are not misinformed, which calls for immediate correction. It is reckoned a point of academical etiquette that every *Doctor's* degree should imply the subordinate one of M. A.; and a student of medicine, who has never qualified for obtaining the latter, but who passes his professional examinations perfectly to the satisfaction of his judges, and is on their report justly intitled to his diploma, receives by it at the same time a literary grade to which he never aspired, of which perhaps he is not worthy, and for which he pays the official fee as if he had obtained it in the regular course: the names of the grave senators of the University, and the common seal of the corporation, being appended to the preposterous instrument. The amendment which we would propose is simply that the medical graduate should be only such; or, which would greatly redound to the credit and respectability of the profession, let him attend on the classes of the *curriculum*, and be examined for his degree in arts before he proceeds to the higher honor.

From a deficiency of treatises on practical education, the Essayist has found it 'necessary to confine the article on Medicine to a few observations, and to abandon one on Law, after a good deal of trouble.'

The Second Part, as we have mentioned, relates to teaching in schools and families; and here the writer seems to be quite at home, and to state the facts with correctness and impartiality: neither palliating the errors and defects of the existing system, nor giving way to Utopian dreams of abrupt reformation or romantic perfectibility, yet shewing what rational improvements may be superinduced on the present institutions and practices. The masters of the parochial schools in Scotland are a most useful and meritorious class of men, and ought to be highly respected: but, in most cases, their

their salary and fees united form but a scanty pittance, altogether incommensurate with the importance and irksomeness of their vocation. Justice and policy alike demand that a remuneration should be provided which is adequate to the nature of the duties performed, and to the rank which an established teacher of youth should hold in society. At the moment of writing this we learn, with much satisfaction, that the land-owners of several counties have signified their willingness to accede to the application of the school-masters for an augmentation of income. Most of the other evils and abuses, noticed by the author, may be remedied in the way which he proposes; for he appears to have considered the existing state of these elementary seminaries, and the practical ameliorations of which it is susceptible, with deep interest and attention. As an example of the sensible manner in which he animadverts on a defect of perspicuity in communicating instruction, we may cite his remarks on the usual method of explaining the principle of the Rule of Three.

‘ Proportion, or the Rule of Three, is a great bugbear to many young scholars; but I never saw it embarrass a child, however young, when it was properly explained. The difficulty arises partly from the monstrous division of Proportion into direct and inverse, founded on a misconception of the doctrines of direct and inverse ratios. Few of our schoolmasters are now ignorant that all proportion is direct, though most of them still adhere to the equally absurd plan of placing in the middle the term of the same name with the answer. The absurdity of this mode of stating will appear by observing, that two quantities have a ratio when either can be multiplied so as to exceed the other. We always hear in our schools such propositions as these; as 3 yards are to 4*l.*, so are 6 yards; as 6 days are to a bushel of flour, so are 9 days. Now, I presume that a yard of cloth cannot be to a pound sterling, nor a day to a bushel of flour, in any ratio whatever.

‘ When a youth or class begins the Rule of Three, let the master explain that it is a rule by which from three given numbers we find a fourth, which has the same proportion to the third that the second has to the first; that is, if the first be double the second, the third must be double the fourth; if the first be equal to the second, the third must be equal to the fourth; if the first be the half of the second, the third must be the half of the fourth, and so of every other proportion. I would use the term proportion, because it is generally understood, while ratio is scarcely known out of our colleges. This explanation is to be exemplified by a series of easy numbers, as 1, 2, 3; 1, 3, 2; 2, 4, 6; 2, 3, 4; 9, 6, 12. When this is understood, the rule is shown for finding the fourth term, by dividing the product of the second and third by the first, and a few examples are presented. Next comes the manner of stating a question. The third term is of the same

name

name with the answer. If the answer ought to be greater than this term, the greater number of the remaining terms should be placed next to it; if it should be less, place the smaller number next to it; the remaining term is the first. Thus, if 2 yards of cloth cost 50s. what will 3 yards cost? Here the answer is in money; consequently 50s. must be the third term; and as the price of three yards must be more than 50s. the price of two, the second term is 3 yards, and the first 2 yards. The answer is 75s.; which may be shown by other methods to have the same ratio to 50s. as 3 to 2. Questions producing inverse ratios are to be proceeded with exactly in the same manner, and it is unnecessary to explain the difference to the pupil. Thus, if 6 men be able to perform a certain piece of work in 8 days, how many will be requisite to finish it in 4 days? If a certain quantity of corn be sufficient for 10 men a year, how long will it suffice for 15 men? A clever boy will probably solve these questions with equal facility. A few explanations will always render the matter easy to those of slower capacity.'

With respect to teaching to mere boys and girls the principles of Calvinistic theology, as set forth in the Catechism of the church of Scotland, the practice cannot be too pointedly reprobated; not only because the dogmatic parts of the system lie beyond the reach of tender intellects, but because it is one of the objects of education to train the mind to a capacity of forming its own unbiassed judgment of the truths of Revelation, and of the right interpretation of the Scriptures. On this account, we must always consider it as equally premature and inexpedient, to require subscription to the 39 Articles from young men on their entrance into an English University. We might urge another forcible objection to the inculcation of dark or mysterious doctrines on the minds of children; namely, that they commit to memory with difficulty and dislike all that they do not comprehend. We have heard of a Scottish *laird* who retained, during life, a horror of *cauld parridge* (cold hasty pudding) and the *Carretches* (Catechism), because he had been condemned to swallow both in his youth. The present author has at least the merit of recommending the use of simple catechisms in the first instance: but he contends for more religious discipline than is quite compatible with the first stages of education: since the unhesitating faith of the docile pupil would alike yield implicit assent to the tenets of the Gospel and those of the Koran. Yet he who can pen the following sentences is assuredly no bigot:

'It is, moreover, the duty and interest of every individual, but particularly of every clergyman, to endeavour to accomplish the difficult task of examining on which side truth lies. He who undertakes this sacred office ought to consider that he is occupied not only with his own salvation, but with that of his fellow-creatures;

tures; that he is to teach them, not the words of man's wisdom, but the oracles of God; not the doctrines of a part of the Christian world taking the name of a church, but the pure, unadulterated gospel of Christ. Let him consider how many errors there are in the world; the danger that we ourselves may be guilty of part of these; and the danger of propagating falsehood by wilfulness or neglect; and he will see that it will be no excuse at the day of judgment, that he durst not contradict the doctrines of his church. Our church has no doctrines to support that are not true, and disclaims all authority contrary to the word of God.

The same considerations will show the propriety of humility to a theologian. When he considers the numerous errors of his brethren, and the changes of opinion that occasionally take place in the same individual, he ought to dread falling into such errors or inconsistencies himself, and never pronounce decidedly on any doubtful question. It is not, indeed, the haughty champion of a system that is most likely to be in the right. The council of Trent uttered no fewer than one hundred and thirty-five sentences of eternal damnation against those who did not believe its dogmas. Yet, are its decisions more worthy of respect than the mild words of the humble Jesus, who often reasoned and argued, but only once denounced eternal punishment, and that not for being in an error, but for maintaining a falsehood after being convinced of the truth?

The strictest regard for truth does not, indeed, imply any intolerance towards those who differ from us. The true philosopher, for such is the character which every clergyman ought to bear, will hearken patiently to those who combat his opinions; he will judge them candidly: if, after mature consideration, he find them in error, he will endeavour to convince them; and if he do not succeed, he will still treat them with the tenderness and pity due to erring brethren. The titles of Heretic, Infidel, and Schismatic, so liberally given by disputants, only perpetuate enmity, and make errors be more obstinately defended. Even the church of Rome now seems to feel that excommunications are not legitimate members of syllogisms, and that racks and faggots are not so convincing arguments as they were supposed to be three centuries ago. The true Protestant, whose only aim is truth, and whose only weapon is clear reason, ought not to fall behind in Christian charity.

Domestic tuition and travelling are here treated with brevity, yet with that sagacity and discrimination which are conspicuous through the greater part of the Essay, and which ought powerfully to recommend it to the consideration of parents, guardians, and teachers; especially should their lot be cast on the other side of the Tweed.

ART. VI. *An Essay on the Blood*, comprehending the chief Circumstances which influence its Coagulation; the Nature of the Buffy Coat, with a concise Medical View of the State of the Blood in Disease; and an Account of the Powers of a saturated Solution of Alum, as a Styptic Remedy in Hemorrhage. By Charles Scudamore, M.D. F.R.S., &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 162. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1824.

It was a very natural belief, adopted by the earliest medical inquirers, that the blood circulating in the living body was not always of one uniform nature, but varied according to the state of health or disease of the animal frame. The fertile imagination of successive writers ascribed to the blood changes and impregnations for which there was no evidence, nor any reason, but the convenient explanation which such assertions seemed to afford of the origin and progress of numerous diseases. Even when the overthrow of the humoral pathology, by the exertions of Baglioi, Hoffman, and our distinguished northern professor, the acute and ingenious Cullen, put a final period to such groundless opinions, still medical men did not altogether abandon the belief of the variable nature of the blood; and Dr. Heberden, who appears to have been sufficiently hostile to the doctrines of the humoral pathologists, admits that there are some diseases, although very few, in which the qualities of the blood afford to the practitioner useful information.* Our own expectations of obtaining knowledge from the examination of the blood, in cases of disease, are at present very limited; and we fear that they must remain so, until chemists shall be more generally agreed as to the true analysis of this vital fluid when drawn from the healthy body.

Two points, however, have long occupied the attention of physicians as indicative of a patient's state, viz. the tenacity of the coagulum of blood, and the presence or absence of the fibrinous coat; and the causes which influence the coagulation of the blood have been made the subject of such careful and multiplied research, that the information to be drawn from the appearance and texture of the blood can now be appreciated with tolerable accuracy. Dr. Scudamore has lately instituted a new series of experiments on the blood, an account of which he has presented to the public in the small volume before us; and the results of his experiments agree in a vast number of particulars with those of preceding inquirers: but, in others, they appear to be at variance with the assertions of some of our most eminent physiologists.

* See his paper in the second vol. of the Medical Transactions.

John Hunter affirmed that coagulable lymph has a greater specific gravity than serum, and detailed the simple experiment by which he arrived at this conclusion. We have repeated it, and are convinced of its accuracy. Dr. S., on the other hand, states that lymph is lighter than serum, (p. 35.) without mentioning how he obtained this result; which is certainly erroneous, as far at least as coagulated lymph is concerned. It may be doubted whether lymph in its liquid state is heavier than serum: most probably they are both of the same specific gravity; while the red globules, being heavier, uniformly subside, and, concreting with the lymph and underneath it, serve to buoy it up and give it the appearance of swimming on the surface.

Dr. Scudamore has shewn more cause for differing from Mr. Hunter in other points of this inquiry. The admixture of water with blood was not found by that great anatomist to alter the rapidity of coagulation, or the firmness of the clot: but in Dr. S.'s experiments, with different proportions of water from those which were used by Mr. H., the coagulation was delayed, and the *coagulum* was found of the consistence of jelly. The fluidity of the blood in the bodies of those who have died from lightning, or from other causes of sudden deprivation of life, has been asserted by Mr. H., and repeated as matter of fact by every subsequent writer: but, in the experiments of Dr. Scudamore on some rabbits, which he instantaneously killed by the action of a powerful electrical battery, the blood in their vessels was found coagulated. We cannot question the authority of John Hunter with regard to the deer which he had run to death, and in which he found the blood perfectly fluid; nor are we inclined to doubt the general correctness of that distinguished physiologist's statement: but the results obtained by Dr. Scudamore shew that it is not without exceptions.

The solidification of fluids is usually attended with a rise of temperature; and it is to be presumed that the same phenomenon would be perceptible during the coagulation of blood, if it took place with rapidity: but, as it occurs by slow degrees, we ought not to be surprized that the rise of temperature cannot be detected by the thermometer. Fourcroy, however, states that he observed a rise of 11° at the moment of coagulation: while Dr. Gordon obtained a rise of 6° in one experiment and 12° in another, or by moving the thermometer from the fluid to the coagulated blood. Dr. S. has pointed out, with great clearness, the error into which Dr. Gordon fell on this occasion, by moving the thermometer to that situation in which the blood always cools

most slowly; and he has endeavoured, by more accurate experiments, to establish this hitherto doubtful point. In his trials, which appear to have been conducted with great nicety, he observed a rise of temperature varying from a quarter of a degree to one degree: but it appears to us that this took place too soon to have been the effect of the coagulation of the blood. Thus, in experiment v., (p. 72.) at the termination of three minutes, the temperature rose from 93° to 94° : but the blood was only of the consistence of jelly in eight minutes, and was not firmly coagulated till the lapse of ten. In experiment i. a rise of .25 was observed in two minutes and a half; and in experiment ii. a rise of .50 in two minutes: periods of time in which we venture to say that coagulation could not have commenced. In experiment vi. (p. 73.) the temperature is said to have risen from 80° to 81° , when concretion of the blood began: but the number of minutes is not stated, nor are we informed how the existence of this incipient concretion was ascertained. The details of these experiments serve to convince us that the elevations of temperature, which were then observed, are not to be ascribed to the coagulation of the blood, but more probably to some intestine movement among the heterogeneous particles of which the blood is composed. The opinion expressed by Dr. John Davy on this subject (*Journal of Science and the Arts*, No. IV. p. 248.) appears to us to be the true one. He concludes from the smallness of the proportion of fibrin, and the gradual and slow manner in which coagulation takes place, "that the heat produced must be too slight to affect sensibly the thermometer."

Dr. Scudamore endeavoured to determine, by experiment, the influence of exposure of blood to different gases, on the rapidity of its coagulation: but the results are not very striking. Exposure to oxygen had the effect of raising the temperature, and facilitating coagulation: hydrogen also seemed to hasten coagulation; but white azot and carbonic acid appeared to delay that process. It is curious to contrast these statements with the results obtained by the distinguished President of the Royal Society; who informs us that the coagulation of venous blood took place in his experiments in the same manner, whether it was exposed to oxygen, nitrous gas, nitrous oxide, carbonic acid, hydro-carbon, or atmospheric air. (*Experiments on Nitrous Oxide.*) Under such diversity of evidence, we must suspend our judgment respecting the influence of these substances on the coagulation of the blood.

It

It is known to our readers that, in the year 1818, Sir Everard Home laid before the Royal Society some very novel and curious opinions on the organization of the coagulum of blood by the extrication of carbonic acid gas, and the formation in this manner of channels pervading the clot, which he supposes are afterward filled with blood and converted into blood-vessels. Dr. Scudamore appears to have been indisposed to adopt these ideas, which, we confess, appear to us to be at variance with the laws of physics: but the presumed existence of carbonic acid in the blood seems to have suggested to him a new opinion as to the long-disputed question of the cause of the coagulation of that fluid. He has ascribed the formation of the coagulum to the extrication of carbonic acid gas, and has endeavoured by various experiments to establish the correctness of this opinion. Many circumstances, ascertained by him in the course of his inquiries, seem to favor the belief that coagulation depends on the escape of some gaseous substance. Blood placed under the exhausted receiver of an air-pump coagulates more rapidly, although it also cools more quickly; and cold is found in other circumstances to delay coagulation. Blood possessing the highest specific gravity coagulates most quickly; and blood which shews the fibrinous coat coagulates most slowly, and has a lower specific gravity than healthy blood. The question, however, of the existence of carbonic acid in the circulating blood seems still to be involved in great obscurity. Sir Everard Home states that, in the experiments made at his request, two cubic inches of carbonic acid gas were extricated under the receiver of the air-pump from every ounce of blood: while Dr. S., in his experiments, was unable, by the same method of exhaustion, to procure from six ounces of blood so much as half a cubic inch of carbonic acid gas: — a very extraordinary discrepancy. On the other hand, some eminent chemists deny that the blood contains any carbonic acid whatever. Dr. John Davy, whose known accuracy and ingenuity are sufficient guarantees for the correctness of his statements, informs us that, during the coagulation of blood spontaneously, and of serum by heat, he never observed carbonic acid to be discharged when the experiments were properly made in vessels to which air could not have access; as in tubes completely filled with blood or serum, and inverted in blood or mercury. He adds that he has not been able to procure carbonic acid from blood just drawn from the vessels, and still warm, when placed under a receiver, and completely exhausted of air. (*Phil. Trans.* 1823, p. 506. note.) Amid this variety of evidence regarding the extrication of carbonic

acid from blood, it is impossible to assent to the opinion of Dr. Scudamore, that the coagulation of blood depends on the escape of that gas. — After all that has been done on this subject, we sincerely believe that physiologists are as far from solving the problem as Mr. Hunter was, when he said, “The blood coagulates from an impression.”

In addition to the various facts which have been noted respecting the coagulation of the blood, it may be stated that it has occurred to us more than once to observe, in dissections 24 hours after death, that the blood flowed from the sinuses of the *dura mater*, and speedily coagulated in the skull-cap, which caught it as it fell. Such blood could hardly be said to have retained its living principle so long; nor do we see what could have prevented the extrication of any gaseous fluid which it might have contained.

Dr. S. has attempted to ascertain the real proportion of fibrin in the blood at different times, and in different states of the body: but, as yet, no method seems to have been discovered by which this can be accurately accomplished. That his method was subject to error must be abundantly obvious, when we consider that, in one of his experiments, the first drawn cup contained nearly 12 grains of dry fibrin in 1000 grains of the clot; while the second cup did not contain quite six grains in 1000. In another experiment, 1000 grains of clot from the first cup contained above 10 grains of dry fibrin, while the same quantity of the second cup contained only six grains and a quarter. From a perusal of the numerous experiments on the composition of the blood by Hewson, Home, Young, and more recently by Dumas and Prevost, we are led to conclude that the constituents of the blood may vary in their apparent proportions, although the latter are in fact nearly or wholly unchanged. The albumen may be united to the serous fluid in a greater or less proportion, or more largely or sparingly concreted into a fibrinous mass; while, on the other hand, the solid nuclei of the red globules may be invested with their colored vesicles in larger or smaller proportion, or united to the particles of that fibrin with which they appear to be nearly identical. On this supposition, we shall find no difficulty in explaining those extraordinary diversities which appear in the successive cups of blood drawn at the same venesection, and which have obviously puzzled Dr. Scudamore. The dilemma has induced him to hazard the following hypothesis, which has at least the merit of fearless boldness:

‘I am led, therefore, to the idea that in inflammation of fibrous textures the fibrin, instead of being distributed to those textures

as in health, remains in excess in the blood. The textures in question would be injured by receiving their usual supply of fibrin, being now in a state of disease; and as regards the variation in the quantity of fibrin in different portions of blood drawn at the same time, it does not appear to me a difficult supposition that in the very short space of time occupied in venesection, the state of circulation should change, so that the capillary arteries at once make a different distribution of the fibrin; resuming in great measure their ordinary economy, and conveying it to the fibrous textures instead of returning it in unnatural excess to the venous circulation.'

So much for ingenious hypothesis:—but the author has indulged his fancy in flights still more unrestricted. Having ascertained to his satisfaction the existence of carbonic acid in the blood, he next tells us that 'he has frequently heard patients complain of a peculiar sensation of fulness of the veins, as if they were distended with air. When the case is urgent, not only the veins but the skin also gives the sensation of tightness and distension. It seems to me highly probable that, in these circumstances, there is an excess of carbonic acid in the blood.' He then adds the practical inference that, 'if this opinion be correct, it would surely be useful to prohibit the use of all liquors which contain much of fixed air. We may extend this prohibition to persons suffering from fulness of habit, or any condition of the vessels in which it is of importance to counteract congestion of blood, or distension of the blood-vessels in any part of the circulating system.' *We* have never chanced to meet with any case of this nature, except among the nervous and hypochondriacal; and we have always ascribed such symptoms to a disordered condition not of the circulating fluids but of the nerves. Under this conviction, we would cordially join Dr. S. in prohibiting all food or drink which was likely to cause distension of the stomach, but certainly not from any expectation that the extricated gas would be absorbed, and carried into the circulation. — We have looked in vain through the publication before us for the 'concise medical view of the state of the blood in disease' which is announced in the title-page: for, with the exception of the remarks on the condition of the blood under inflammatory disease, we have met with nothing of this nature.

The astringent powers of alum as an internal remedy, and its value as a styptic application, have long been known to the profession, and the substance has been extensively employed in both these ways. Of late, since the art of the surgeon has been so greatly improved, styptics for wounds are rarely if ever considered: but for internal hæmorrhage they

still afford a valuable resource. Dr. S. tells us that he has the sanction of Mr. Clarke, of Saville Row, for stating that the warm saturated solution of alum, which is the form recommended by the author, may be safely injected into the uterus for the purpose of checking hæmorrhage; and we readily assent to the opinion, because the profuse flow of blood would necessarily prevent the application of any hurtful quantity of the saline substance to the surface of the bleeding organ. The circumstance now mentioned, however, inclines us to think that, in such cases, little dependence ought to be placed on the solution of alum; and that the modes of applying pressure at present in use are greatly to be preferred, for the purpose of restraining uterine hæmorrhage. The internal administration of alum, in cases of hæmorrhage, was found by Dr. Scudamore to be attended with highly beneficial effects; and it gives us much satisfaction to state that we have lately seen very marked benefit from the exhibition of alum combined with opium, in a long-continued case of hæmaturia.

Dr. S. certainly merits our thanks for the ingenuity and industry which he has displayed in his experiments, and for the manner in which he has directed the attention of the profession to the astringent virtues of alum: but we cannot congratulate him on the discovery of any important fact in physiology, except with regard to the state of the blood after death caused by electricity; or on the suggestion of any idea altogether new in the practice of the healing art.

ART. VII. *Greece, in 1823 and 1824*; being a Series of Letters, and other Documents, on the Greek Revolution, written during a Visit to that Country. By the Hon. Col. Leicester Stanhope. Illustrated with several curious Fac-Similes. To which is added, the Life of Mustapha Ali. 8vo. pp. 368. 13s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1824.

THE successes of the Greeks, the general apathy of the British nation respecting their cause, and the recent efforts of some individuals to assist them, have called to our recollection the well known anecdote of Lord Chesterfield and Dr. Johnson: the former of whom affected the patronage of the latter, but never offered any real aid while it would have been useful. When the Earl wished that the Dictionary should be dedicated to him, the indignant lexicographer exclaimed, "Is not a patron, my Lord, one who looks with unconcern on a man struggling for life in the water, and when he has reached ground encumbers him with help? The notice which you

you have been pleased to take of my labours, had it been early, had been kind; but it has been delayed till I am indifferent, and cannot enjoy it; till I am solitary, and cannot impart it; till I am known, and do not want it." There was a time when the seeming indifference of England to the struggles of the Greeks made us tremble for the character of our countrymen. We could not help feeling ashamed and mortified that, while subscriptions in clothing, medicine, money, and military stores, were made to assist them in other parts of Europe, in Germany and Swisserland particularly, and likewise we believe in America, the patriots of England apparently stood with folded arms as unconcerned spectators; and we almost feared that, like Dr. Johnson's noble patron, they might court the dedication of a work, to the completion of which they had conferred no act of assistance or word of encouragement. Our countrymen, however, have not thus belied their generous character. For an interval, indeed, they lounged on the beach, and saw the gallant vessel of the Greeks struggling in the Ionian seas against the surging billows: but they were contemplating how best they might avert the impending wreck, and save the crew. A life-boat was at last ordered out, which reached the vessel, and is now relieving her in the perils of the storm. This life-boat is the *loan of money* negotiated in England on account of the Greek government; which is now in the course of payment, and will enable it to institute those offensive operations that a deficiency of means and a want of union among the leaders have hitherto prevented it from undertaking. Both these impediments to the progress of the Greek arms and the consolidation of the Greek power, we rejoice to hear, are in a great measure removed.

The disputes of rival chieftains occasioned the misfortunes of Greece in the Trojan war; and though some of the traits of national character described by Homer are softened down in modern times, still enough is left of the antient features to point out a resemblance. It is well observed, however, by the editor of the interesting volume now before us, that the want of union among the Greek leaders, though much to be lamented, is a consequence almost necessarily resulting from the unsettled state of a nation just emerging from slavery into independence. Such a crisis will bring forwards many men of nearly equal consequence, among whom jealousies naturally arise, which are readily fomented by artful and interested intriguers into subjects of hatred and discord. He tells us, however, that this unhealthy spirit has almost exhausted itself; and so cordial an union has taken place among the leaders,

that.

that the government may now reckon on possessing that controlling power without which its utmost exertions might have been frustrated. The Greeks have hitherto been compelled to adopt a defensive line of policy; and although in all their naval operations they have been eminently successful, still even in them, and more particularly in their military equipments, they have experienced considerable embarrassments from the want of money. In order to secure a defensible frontier, which may serve as a barrier against future encroachments and a security against future attacks, offensive operations will be absolutely necessary.

A Greek Committee in London, comprizing among its numbers many men of rank and talents, did not forget that, if money was essential to carry on an effective warfare against the Turks, they had also another engine within their reach of more than equal efficacy. Money might put the Greeks on a par with their enemies in procuring the means of physical conflict: but the engine to which we allude gives them an ascendancy, a moral superiority, which no substitute can furnish to the Turks, — namely, *A Free Press*. The praises of liberty, says the editor, have been sounded in their ears, and the love of it has sunken too deeply in their hearts to be obliterated: by means of the press, the public mind in Greece has been directed to subjects on which they dared not even think under their former rulers: it is in this point of view that the efforts of those distinguished foreigners who have exerted themselves in behalf of Greece have been most beneficial to her; and it is here that the Greek Committee of London justly bears away the palm of merit.

Colonel Leicester Stanhope, whose previous exertions in behalf of a free press in India intitled him to the highest praise, offered his service to the Committee to proceed in the character of their agent to Greece: it was thankfully accepted; and the present volume consists principally of the details given by him to the Committee, of the steps that he was taking in support of the cause which he and they had so heartily espoused. The reader must not expect in these pages any flowery description of the beauties of scenery, or even the beauties of females; he will find no ecstasies, no raptures, no bursts of sentiment, no fiction, no poetry, no compound epithets, or sonorous sentences: but a plain detail of the occurrences of the day, and of plans projected, abandoned, or adopted. Most of these letters were written in the urgency of the moment, from huts or caves, or in the open air, and frequently in the midst of difficulties, mutiny, and a crowd of people. They are not even of an official character, but

but were addressed to the Colonel's friend Mr. Bowring, for the information of the Committee.

We could not help remarking that, in almost all the conferences which Colonel Stanhope held in the course of his journey, whether with the Philhellene Committee at Zurich, or with Count Capo d'Istria, or the Chev. Mustoxidi, or M. Fellenberg, a general suspicion seemed to prevail that England had some selfish policy in view towards Greece. This must have been a mortifying and humiliating observation for him to be compelled to make.

'I have endeavoured,' says he, 'to impress a contrary conviction, founded on our interest. So long as Greece could be kept down by the Porte, the British government sanctioned her oppression. But the moment she freed herself, and the question was whether she was to become a substantive state or to be added to Russia, no doubt could remain on the mind of any sane statesman; for it never could be the interest of England to increase that vast empire by adding to her wealth, and raising her into an important naval power.'

In a conference with Count Capo d'Istria,

'The Count said that Lord Londonderry's desire was to render Greece as insignificant and harmless as possible, and to make her people like the spiritless natives of Hindoostan; that he had recommended him to pursue an enlightened and liberal course towards the Ionian Islands; but that he (Lord L.) had not a mind to look deep into things, nor a soul to act nobly. He then began to hint at the selfish and commercial views of England. I replied that we had no fears for Greece on the side of Turkey, that what we feared was internal commotion excited by the military chiefs. We feared, too, Russia; — her invasion, even her protection, we feared. The Count resumed, by observing that the Committee had done, and might still do, great good, but that we must not attempt to Anglicanise Greece. I replied, that we rather wished to Americanise her. The Count thought our end should be to enlighten Greece, and to act upon utilitarian principles. Yes, said I, Count, but do you think that the *Sainte Alliance* will allow Greece to establish a virtuous republic. His Excellency spoke as well as could be expected; he beat about the bush, and then said that it was not in the nature of things that monarchs should encourage republics: he added, that, if England acted nobly, and sided with Greece, no power could succeed against her.'

Colonel S. reached Cephalonia in November, 1823; where he found Lord Byron, who had generously advanced four thousand pounds for the payment of the troops, and who was beloved equally by Cephalonians, English, and Greeks. All accounts concurred in representing the affairs of Greece, at that time, as in an unfavorable state: the legislative body, indeed,

deed, had always acted with great discretion, but the executive was devoid of public virtue, and influenced by avarice or low ambition. Colocotroni was rich with plunder, and rapacious: but to Mavrocordato the whole nation looked up with hope and confidence. The object which seemed of the first importance was to allay the dissensions of the chiefs. An excellent letter on the general affairs of Greece had been addressed to Prince Mavrocordato by Lord Erskine, of which Colonel Stanhope was the bearer; and he now proceeded to Napoli and Argos with a letter of introduction to the Prince from Lord Byron, from which the following passage is extracted:

"I am very uneasy at hearing that the dissensions of Greece still continue, and at a moment when she might triumph over every thing in general, as she has already triumphed in part. Greece is, at present, placed between three measures; either to re-conquer her liberty, or to become a dependence of the sovereigns of Europe, or to return to a Turkish province: she has the choice only of these three alternatives. Civil war is but a road which leads to the two latter. If she is desirous of the fate of Walachia and the Crimea, she may obtain it *to-morrow*; if of that of Italy, the *day after*; but if she wishes to become *truly Greece, free and independent*, she must resolve *to-day*, or she will never again have the opportunity."

Short as the time was during which the Colonel was allowed to remain in Greece, he effected great things. On his journey, he had made himself acquainted with Fellenberg's system of education, and immediately set about introducing it: 'I have recommended the Greeks to have the Swiss institutions always before their eyes, and their chiefs to have Washington before theirs.' He had scarcely been a week at Missolonghi, before a free press was at work, the formation of a corps of artillery was decided, and funds were furnished for its maintenance; as well as a supply of money to prevent the dispersion of the Greek fleet, which was then blockading the Gulf of Lepanto. Mavrocordato had borrowed money till at last he could procure no more; and under these circumstances he sent Dr. Meyer to Colonel S. 'I told him,' says the latter, 'that I should devote *two-thirds of my income* to the Greek cause, but that I should only make that sacrifice to the furtherance of important objects which would have a lasting influence on the nation; for example, in promoting education, a free press, and posts, to give currency to men's ideas,' &c. Presses, laboratories, dispensaries, and schools, were accordingly organized and established under his well-directed zeal and activity. Dr. Meyer is a Swiss gentleman, distinguished by the intelligence and good qualities of his countrymen, and well acquainted with the Greek character.

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He undertook to be the editor of the Greek Chronicle, which issued its first number on the 1st of January, 1824: it is printed in Greek and Italian, and is published twice in a week. Many copies of it come to England, and much of the intelligence which we receive from the Archipelago is derived from the pages of this journal: but, which is more important, it is circulated throughout Greece by a *post*, also established by Colonel Stanhope for the conveyance of parcels and letters across the Morea. In a letter addressed to the general government, he says that he feels so much impressed with the necessity of such an establishment, particularly in a free and commercial country, that he offers to convey the mails at his own risk and expence; making the centre of the post at Tripolizza, and having correspondents at Gastouni, Napoli, and Corinth; from Gastouni, the correspondence to be carried on with Western Greece, the Ionian Isles, and Europe; from Napoli, to communicate with the isles of the Archipelago; and from Corinth to Eastern Greece.

The character of Lord Byron has of late been dissected with such anatomical minuteness, by friend and foe, that it is scarcely possible that any latent trait should have escaped notice. Yet not a few readers will be surprized to find Colonel Stanhope on the verge of a quarrel with his Lordship; who expressed, in a very unexpected manner, his fears that a free press was not applicable to the situation of Greece. Lord B. feared libels and licentiousness; while the Colonel contended that a free press was especially requisite to put an end to the state of anarchy which existed, to check public licentiousness, and to expose libellers to odium. An English Naval Captain came to demand of Prince Mavrocordato the restitution of some property, and an equivalent for an Ionian boat which had been taken in the act of going out of the Gulf of Lepanto with arms and provisions: the Greek fleet at that time blockaded the harbour with five brigs, but the Turks had fourteen vessels of war in the Gulf.

‘ Lord Byron conducted the business in behalf of the Captain. In the evening he conversed with me on the subject. I said the affair was conducted in a bullying manner, and not according to the principles of equity and the law of nations. His Lordship started into a passion. He contended, that law, justice, and equity, had nothing to do with politics. That may be; but I will never lend myself to injustice. His Lordship then began, according to custom, to attack Mr. Bentham. I said, that it was highly illiberal to make personal attacks on Mr. Bentham before a friend who held him in high estimation. He said, that he only attacked his public principles, which were mere theories, but dangerous; — injurious to Spain, and calculated to do great mischief in Greece.

Greece. I did not object to his Lordship's attacking Mr. B.'s principles; what I objected to were his personalities. His Lordship never reasoned on any of Mr. B.'s writings, but merely made sport of them. I would, therefore, ask him what it was that he objected to. Lord Byron mentioned his Panopticon as visionary. I said that experience in Pennsylvania, at Milbank, &c. had proved it otherwise. I said that Bentham had a truly British heart; but that Lord Byron, after professing liberal principles from his boyhood, had, when called upon to act, proved himself a Turk. — Lord Byron asked, what proofs have you of this? — Your conduct in endeavouring to crush the press, by declaiming against it to Mavrocordato, and your general abuse of liberal principles. — Lord Byron said, that if he had held up his finger he could have crushed the press. — I replied, with all this power, which, by the way, you never possessed, you went to the Prince and poisoned his car. — Lord Byron declaimed against the liberals whom he knew. — But what liberals? I asked; did he borrow his notions of freemen from the Italians? — Lord Byron. No; from the Hunts, Cartwrights, &c. — And still, said I, you presented Cartwright's Reform Bill, and aided Hunt by praising his poetry and giving him the sale of your works. — Lord Byron exclaimed, you are worse than Wilson, and should quit the army. — I replied, I am a mere soldier, but never will I abandon my principles. Our principles are diametrically opposite, so let us avoid the subject. If Lord Byron acts up to his professions, he will be the greatest; — if not, the meanest of mankind. — He said he hoped his character did not depend on my assertions. — No, said I, your genius has immortalized you. The worst could not deprive you of fame. — Lord Byron. Well; you shall see: judge me by my acts. When he wished me good night, I took up the light to conduct him to the passage; but he said, What! hold up a light to a Turk!

Lord B. must in his heart have been delighted with the spirit and earnestness of Colonel Stanhope. Such men were not formed to be enemies. — It was only a fortnight after this little eruption, that his Lordship was seized with a severe fit while sitting in the Colonel's room. His eyes and brow indicated the workings of strong feelings: he complained of a weakness in one of his legs, and could not walk. Being placed on a bed, he became violently convulsed, but in a few minutes began to recover his senses, his speech returned, and he was soon well, though exhausted by the struggle.

During the fit his Lordship was as strong as a giant, and after it he behaved with his usual firmness. I conceive that this fit was occasioned by over-excitement. The mind of Byron is like a volcano, it is full of fire, wealth, and combustibles; and when this matter comes to be strongly agitated the explosion is dreadful. With respect to the causes that produced this excess of feeling, they are beyond my reach, except one great cause, which was the provoking conduct of the Suliots. Lord Byron had acted towards

them with a degree of generosity that could not be exceeded, and then, when his plans were all formed for the attack of Lepanto, and his hopes were raised on the delivery of Western Greece from the inroads of the Turks, these ungrateful soldiers demanded, and extorted, and refused to march till all was settled to gratify their avarice. This was enough to agitate any heart warm in the cause of Greece. Such events are, however, quite natural, and may and ought to be anticipated. The Suliots have since agreed to act agreeably to Lord Byron's pleasure.'

Though Lord Byron had faults, grievous and many, he had virtues of a high order to redeem them; and Greece, in the death of him, has lost one of her noblest friends. Colonel S. was at Salona when the intelligence of his death arrived: 'Honoured be his memory,' he exclaims: 'had I the disposal of his ashes, I would place them in the temple of Theseus, or in the Parthenon of Athens.' *

It is impossible to appreciate so highly as they deserve the indefatigable exertions which Colonel Stanhope made during his short stay in Greece, for her emancipation and moral improvement. His personal privations, great as they were, we hold to be comparatively nothing: but if the voluntary sacrifice of two thirds of his income may justly endear him, how much is the value of this sacrifice enhanced by the great judgment with which it was applied. An officer in the British army, we do not find his attention confined to military affairs: urgent, indeed, as these were, and for a long time must be, they receive their due share of his attention, but not more: — it was the permanent improvement of the Greek character, of which he was most assiduous in laying the foundation. In a letter to Odysseus, we find him solicitous to gain that General's concurrence in constituting what he quaintly terms an Utilitarian Society, to consist of the most virtuous and able citizens of Athens: of which the end proposed is the formation of museums, dispensaries, schools, agricultural and horticultural societies, — in short, of all establishments connected with the advancement of useful practical knowledge. Similar institutions were suggested for Napoli, Tripolizza, and Missolonghi, with plans to put them

* In the Appendix, page 322., is a very interesting and pathetic letter from Captain Trelawny to Colonel Stanhope, describing the particulars of Lord Byron's death. We should gladly have inserted it: but *Greece*, with its actual state and prospects, is the direct subject of the present article, and we must resist even this strong temptation to be led away from it. The remains of Lord Byron and his papers were confided to the care of Colonel Stanhope, who accompanied them to England.

in communication with all societies professing the same principles in other quarters of the world. It was under the designation of the Philo-Muse Society that this purpose was carried into execution. In a sort of Prospectus written by him, it is stated that the Society has no political character; its sole object being to preserve the records and antiquities, and to advance the knowledge and improve the condition of the Greeks. It has converted a building in the Temple of Minerva into a museum, and established a cheap school for the study of the ancient Greek language and the classics; it has also established a Lancasterian school. It solicits information concerning the fine arts, legislation, commerce, economics, mechanics, and in short every branch of science; and it has laid the foundation of a library, open to the public, in which will be admitted books, especially those that are elementary, on all useful subjects and in any language.

In a letter to Mr. Bentham, whose interest in the cause of Greece is inferior to that of no man, and whose enlightened principles of legislation are irradiating that country, Colonel S. felicitates himself that civilization and good government are gaining ground, chiefly through the means of publicity. 'My principal exertions,' says he, 'have been directed towards promoting education, union, and military exertions; and towards crushing the oligarchs by giving power to the people, and raising the character of their representatives.' There is a fund of virtue in Greece, but it is monopolized by the peasantry: they are a martial people, armed, possessing a strong country, proud of their ancestors, and opposed to a bigoted, a besotted, and superstitious enemy, whose interests are divided and clash with each other. The object most immediately pressing and important, however, was, if possible, to effect an union and co-operation among the rival leaders: it was also the most difficult to accomplish: but the earnest exhortations of Lord Byron and Colonel Stanhope have been successful. Colonel S. found Greece divided into parties:—

'First, there is Mavrocordato, the oligarchs of the islands, and some of those of the Peloponnesus, and the legislative body. These are for order and a mild despotism, either under a foreign king, or otherwise. This faction stood high, but must now change its principles or lose its power. 2dly, There is Colocotroni; and some of the captains, and some of the oligarchs of the Morea, who are for power and plunder. This party is going down hill at a gallop. And, 3dly, There is Ipsilanti, Odyseus, Negris, and the mass who are now beginning to embrace republican notions, finding that they cannot otherwise maintain their power.

'Now, the question is, which of these parties should an honest man embrace? All have stumbled by endeavouring to hug the best

best of these factions. I have pursued another course, cautiously avoiding them all. I have loudly rated all for their vices, and as loudly praised them for their good acts. This, for one who has no genius for political intrigue, tactics, or what is called diplomacy, is the safest course. It places a man of a plain mind on a level with and even above a high-flying politician of the Gentz or Metternich school.

We ascribe much of the Colonel's success to his utter scorn and loathing of every thing in the shape of subterfuge, intrigue, and quackery: for we never find him veering and tacking, but pursuing a right onward course, like a steam-vessel, without regarding whether the wind and the tide be for or against him. With the hope of reconciling the discordant interests of the chieftains, after great difficulties, he effected a Congress at Salona; where the first business was to shake hands, and arrange future operations in the spirit of pure patriotism and cordial amity. The Congress met, — but without Lord Byron: he intended to be there, but Banquo's chair was empty. We must extract part of a letter from Captain Trelawny to Colonel Stanhope, for it is creditable to all the parties named:

Missolonghi, April 29. 1824.

'Dear Stanhope, — * * * * *, I fear me, is not coming. The greatest man in the world has resigned his mortality in favour of this sublime cause; for had he remained in the quiet life I urged him to renounce in Italy, he had lived. I call on you, in the name of Greece, to do all you can to fill his place. I say you can do the greatest service to the cause, and you must not leave us; you are public property, and must sacrifice all private duties and ties. I am a poor nameless individual; yet I feel I am of importance, for I have done good, as can every honest and independent man, however employed. I have ties, duties, and inclinations, which call on me from other countries; but I turn a deaf ear to them all, till awakened Greece is free. I am sick at heart that I have lost the friend and companion of many years, for I find that he had written me many letters, but both his letters and my letters never reached their destination: such is the villainous short-sighted system of the policy of these people, for "murder will out." Byron, had I met him, instead of sending Finlay, would have been at Salona now. His name was the means chiefly of raising the loan in England. Thousands of people were flocking here: some had arrived as far as Corfu, and hearing of his death, confessed they came out to devote their fortunes, not to the Greeks or interest in the cause, but to the noble poet; and the pilgrim of eternity having departed, they turned back.'

The members of the Congress were freely chosen by the people of their respective prefectures, and besides these some of the chiefs were personally present. Many questions of

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great importance were dispassionately canvassed; and, before Colonel S. was recalled from the Morea, he had the satisfaction of finding that he had been the means of effecting not merely a nominal but a hearty and constitutional union among the parties. It was at Zante, on the 12th of May last, that he received the following very peremptory letter announcing his recall :

' From the Deputy-Adjutant-General to Col. Stanhope.

' Horse-Guards, March 19. 1824.

' Sir, — I have the Commander-in-Chief's commands to acquaint you that his Majesty has been pleased to cancel the leave of absence granted to you on the 30th of September last; and I am therefore to express his Royal Highness's desire that you do *forthwith* repair to Corfu and report yourself to Lieutenant-General Sir F. Adam, from whom you will receive his Majesty's further commands as to your return to England. I am further commanded by his Royal Highness, to acquaint you that any neglect or delay on your part in obeying this order, or such as you may receive from Sir F. Adam, will be visited with his Majesty's highest displeasure.

' I have the honour to be, &c.

' J. MACDONALD, Deputy-Adjutant-General.

' To the Hon. Leicester Stanhope.'

With all the promptness which a sense of duty, discipline, and loyalty could inspire, this command was immediately obeyed. Fortunately for Greece, the Colonel had sown the seeds of union and general information with a most rapid as well as bountiful and judicious hand, during the short stay which he was enabled to make; and there is a prolific soil in the Greek character, which prevents us from having any doubts respecting the harvest. — What does this letter say, however, as to the feelings and wishes of the English government?

Before Col. S. landed in England, he drew up a rapid sketch of the state of Greece. Having glanced at the views of Turkey, Russia, and ' the corporation of tyrants called the Holy Alliance, combined to support superstition and to crush all learning,' he considers the political features of the executive and legislative bodies, the ministers, police, tribunals, &c. &c. It is extremely natural that a wild liberty should prevail for a time in any country which has just broken its fetters; this has hitherto been the case in Greece: but the principles of civil liberty are now beginning to be appreciated. Even the depredations of the military chiefs have done good; for the annoyance and distress which they occasioned have brought home to the bosoms of the peasantry the blessings of order, and of security for person and property.

party. The Byzantine Code, and parts of the *Code Napoleon*, prevail in Greece: but neither of them is much followed, and the administration of justice is in its lowest state. Having no prejudices to conquer, however, and no lawyers to perplex and mystify, she is ready to accept the best code that may be offered. Mr. Bentham has lent his assistance; and Sir James Mackintosh, we just learn, has written a paper on International Law with reference to the Greeks, in which he urges the importance of establishing maritime tribunals in their country. This paper, no doubt, the Greek Committee of London will immediately transmit to the Provisional Government.

The martial spirit of the Greek peasantry is not inferior to that of the regular soldiery, and some persons consider them as the stoutest and most formidable warriors in Greece. Avarice is the prevailing vice:

‘ In a despotic government, it is necessary for the slave to be penurious, to hold fast, and to bury his money. Vices are hardly vices under absolute government. There avarice, intrigue, cunning, falsehood, servility, robberies, insurrections, and, sometimes, frightful murders, are the only methods of self-defence. There every thing is confounded, and the sole measure of security is to be found in a perverse application of the principles of utility.

‘ *Plunderers.* — The Turks taught the Greeks to be plunderers. Their exactions drove the cultivators and shepherds into the mountains, where they lived like wolves, and became freemen, outlaws, and plunderers. The survivors grew warlike, — sometimes the terror, sometimes the allies of the Turks, and at last the assistants of Grecian freedom. Such was the origin of most of the captains. It must not, however, be supposed that the captains are the only plunderers; many of the primates possessed power and wealth under the Ottoman rule, and they are as grasping as the soldiers.

‘ *Intriguers.* — The Greeks, especially those of Constantinople, the Fanariots, excel in finesse, sophistry, political intrigue, and crooked diplomacy. Such are the tactics of absolute governments. They are equally necessary to avoid ruin or to attain fortune. By pursuing this course the Greeks slid into the favour of their masters, and were appointed governors of provinces, interpreters, &c. Who then can be surprised that the Greek slave should select the winding path which is surrounded by splendid scenery, and leads to the temple of luxury? In a good cause, intriguing politicians can never reach their goal as soon by a zig-zag, as a good man would by a direct, course. Their sly manœuvres may always be foiled by a bold straight-forward and persevering attack.

‘ The Greek fleet,’ says Colonel Stanhope, ‘ is not equal to cope with the combined Turkish fleet:’ for it consists of only

eighty sail of merchant-brigs, manned by very skilful and brave sailors. Yet in all attacks it has been successful. The naval warfare of the Greeks is irregular: but they harass and worry the Turks to death: the victory of Samos is but of yesterday; and the combined Turkish and Egyptian fleets are scattered to the winds, and annihilated as to any effective purpose of annoyance for the present. With respect to the army, the captains are mostly of humble origin, uneducated, simple in their manners, but intelligent, and excellent mountain-warriors. By their courage and constancy, they have kept up a spirit of resistance in the people against the oppression of the Turks. That they have practised on their oppressors the atrocious cruelties which they had first learned from them is neither to be denied nor palliated; but they have struck the Turks with terror, and cleared the country (says Colonel S.) of savages that never could have been their friends, and would always have endangered their freedom. Since the establishment of a constitutional government among them, as we have before noticed, they have gradually become less sanguinary. The soldiers have the vices and the virtues of their superiors; they are irregularly paid, and will leave their captains when dissatisfied: but they are better disciplined now than at the beginning of the revolution.

‘The Greek soldiers are extremely hardy; can make long marches; carry heavy weights on their backs; live constantly in the open air; proceed without magazines; suffer great privations; endure dirt and vermin; and still preserve their high spirits. They are swift as horses, and scarcely tangible; and if a love of liberty can ensure perseverance, almost unconquerable in their wild fastnesses. Every soldier’s mind is bent on success; no Greek ever admits the possibility of being again subjected to the Turks. If you talk of millions that are about to pour down into their country, still they never appear dismayed. They tell you calmly that as more come, more will be famished or mowed down by the Hellenists. This gallant feeling is *universal*. My opinion is, that the struggle, however protracted, must succeed, and must lead to an improvement in the condition, not only of Greece but of Asia.’

We cannot better take leave of Colonel Stanhope than in the words of the “Resolution” of the Greek Committee on receiving his “Report;” that he is “entitled to their most grateful thanks for the unwearied zeal, sound discretion, and extensive benevolence manifested by him, while acting as their agent; and the Committee anticipates great benefits to Greece from the exertions and suggestions which distinguished his visit to that country:” particularly in his “efforts to promote harmony and a good understanding among the different
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leaders in Greece, a result greatly advanced by his conciliatory spirit and superiority to party-considerations."

The *Fac-similes* mentioned in the title-page are those of Colonel Stanhope, the late Lord Erskine, Mr. Bentham, Mavrocordato, Lord Byron, and several Athenians of the first rank and character: who addressed a pressing memorial to the members of the London Committee, expressing their high sense of the disinterested services which Colonel Stanhope had conferred on their country; and requesting that he might be allowed to remain among them at so critical a juncture. (See Appendix, Nos. xxviii. and xxix.) We have not room to advert to the project for educating some young Greeks in England, or to the history of little Mustapha Ali, whose portrait is prefixed to the volume.

ART. VIII. *Tales and Sketches of the West of Scotland.* By Christopher Keelivine. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Whittakers. 1824.

THESE are pleasing stories, and may be classed with several others recently published in the secondary school of Scottish novel-writing. The first tale, which in our opinion is by far the best, is called *Mary Ogilvie*, and is simple and pathetic. It is told in the first person; and an attachment of early youth is thus feelingly described, as the remembrance of it is awakened by local scenes and recollections:

The wind blew chill in my face, as I turned up the hill towards it. I thought it looked bleak and barren; and I had just learned at the inn, that "bonny Mary Ogilvie," its only interesting inmate, was on the eve of marriage with a neighbouring farmer; and of course it was folly in me to concern myself about the house or her. But I looked to the right, and *there* still stood the identical Lillyburn wood, where Mary and I used to wander, and to pick cowlips and gather blaeberries, when we were children; and the little green broomy hill, behind which I used to watch for her when she grew tall and modest, and would not look at me when any one was by. But I thought the wood looked now diminutive and scattered, and the trees whistled mournfully in the wind, — and my heart smote me with a conviction of the fancifulness and instability of our dearest enjoyments. I passed on, listening to the cold breeze sighing through the firs, until I came to a little bridge; and I looked down the stream, and contemplated the little linn where I used to fish, — and Mary took the trout gently off the hook, and threw them back into the water: for she said, "If I killed the pretty little fish, it would teach me to be cruel." Long ago, when we waded in that lovely stream, the sun gleamed like gold upon the surface, and the little waves formed running shadows on the clear sandy bottom: but many a sea and stream have I looked upon since, though none so charming as this

seemed then. I looked, musing, down its windings, and found myself repeating the stanza which would be thought beautiful were it less hackneyed.

“ We twa hae paidled in the burn,
When summer days were fine;
But seas between us braid hae roar’d,
Since the days o’ langsyne.”

But the days of wading are now no more, and Lillyburn seems but a paltry rivulet, and Mary Ogilvie is about to be another’s, and — Pshaw! said I to myself at length, giving my horse a smart stroke of the whip, without the least occasion or intention, — it is all folly and nonsense: I am sure I have seen enough of life to put all such romance out of my head.

Mary is married, but not to the object of her first and tenderest predilections, — the narrator; who had been her early playmate, friend, and companion; — but worldly pride, and the fastidiousness of a fickle mind, had made him indecisive till he was actually invited to the wedding which was to give her to another. An accidental private interview takes place, which is described with great feeling.

‘ At every step in this wise reasoning, I was gaining strength to overcome my juvenile passion, when, turning round the foot of the green mound I have mentioned, I was met full in the face by Mary Ogilvie. We gazed upon each other, for a moment, as mutually surprised what should have brought us, on this day, to the scene of our early love. I held out my hand to her instinctively. She gave me hers, in a manner which seemed to express the frankness of the old friend mixing with the modesty of the bride; and said something of surprise at finding me so far from my own home, and idling on this spot. But without waiting for my answer, she excused herself being in the little wood, by saying that, while the servants were making preparation for the expected company, she had left the house to be out of the way, and wandered thus far.

‘ I still held her hand; and answered with more passion than wisdom, that she needed not to have given me this account of herself; and that the time was, when she would not have made excuses for meeting me in this wood. She looked at me with surprise at this speech, as well she might; and, withdrawing her hand, answered, “ Aye, and I have seen the day, Mr. George, when — ”

‘ “ When what, Mary,” said I, as she paused, — “ speak! I love to hear you speak, as ye did long ago.” — “ When,” she answered, “ I would na ha’e needed to excuse mysel’ to you for meeting wi’ you ony place; and when, if it had been told me that ye would ha’e been awa’ frae Lillybrae for years, and come back without asking for me, or seeking to speak to me as ye used to do, if it were nae mair,” said she mournfully, “ than to gar me greet wi’ minding me o’ our happiness when we were bairns, I wadna ha’e believed them; and, if ye like to hear me speak as I did langsyne,”

"langsyne," said she, her voice trembling as she spoke, "what for did ye no come to Lillybrae, and speak to me, George?"

'These words were spoken in a tone so affecting, and with a look of such appealing expression, that it smote me with agonizing conviction of injustice, or rather cruelty to her, and took from me the power of uttering the excuse which I had meditated.' I hesitated and stammered. "Mary Ogilvie," said I, at length, "I cannot tell you all the reasons; but my heart was not in it, Mary; I denied myself much, — much, — in not seeing you; but I heard you were going to be married to Craiglands, and I did not know but that you had forgotten me, and our early love." I took both her hands, and looked in her eyes: "And you know, Mary," continued I, "we have other things to do in life, than idle about these bonnie woods, pulling primroses and reading love-*tales*; for the scenes of our early days quickly pass away, and the feelings may be very different in after-years. But *my* heart was not in fault, Mary; — I have not forgotten these days, nor this pretty bank, nor your lovely blue eyes, and yellow locks, — nor the day that we went to the Craigs of Glenvee, — nor, — you are in tears, Mary; — I did not mean to vex you."

' "Oh George," said she, while the tears fell fast from her swimming eyes, "how can you speak so now, and not a word until my wedding-day? But I know you do not mean to pain me, — I ken your warm heart; but ye'll be designed for some great leddy, an' I should never ha'e thought o' the like o' you."

'As I was going to reply, she held her hand up before my mouth, and said, "Dinna speak nae mair to me, George; for I'm but a weak woman, an' I'm gaun to be married to a decent man o' my ain condition; — but I canna forget, — no I winna forget: — farewell." She tried to get away. "Will you leave me that way, Mary? it is our last meeting, — the very last in this wood." I drew her to me; — she fell into my arms. I kissed her warmly; — our tears mingled; — she broke from me, staggered with agitation, then glided off round the green mount, leaving me like one awakened from a dream. — I threw myself on the turf to recover my feelings, and pondered on the shortness of those scenes that live longest in our remembrance, and the scantiness of those illumined pages of the book of life which are dearer to the fancy than all the rest of the dull and blotted volume.'

Mr. George soon becomes a man of wealth and consequence, having married a lady of fortune and fashion; and time glides away in the conjugal dulness of an union in which the heart had no share. The lady was not like poor Mary Ogilvie, for she had neither heart nor sentiment; and her husband's thoughts recurred to his early love, which acquired strength from its seeming hopelessness. Those first affections are still more intensely excited, when he learns from her father that Mary had become a widow. In a short period he is again made a single man, by the accidental death of his lady; and

after a visit to the Continent he returns to the scenes of his childhood, his heart still full of his first love. He sends a message to her, requesting an interview, and the meeting is beautifully narrated.

'The moon rose in placid beauty o'er the silent valleys beneath Lillybrae, and gleamed in flakes of waving silver upon the rippling stream, near the wood, as I wandered behind the green hill, anxiously waiting for Mary. A thousand recollections crowded upon me, connected with this sacred spot, — our meeting here on the day of her wedding, and the striking circumstances of that night, the last occasion on which I had seen her. At length I observed a shadow moving round the foot of the hill; and, in a few moments, Mary Ogilvie, wrapped in a mantle, with a timid step, drew near. We stood for a moment looking on one another, as if neither could speak or move: — I stepped hastily forward, holding out both of my hands. The embarrassment of the moment prevented her offering me hers. There was an eagerness to embrace; but we seemed undecided at the instant, whether it should be as friends, or as lovers: passion prevailed: — I threw my arms round her, and strained her closely: — she laid her head passionately on my shoulder, — or rather, in Scripture language, she "fell upon my neck, and wept." I felt her limbs tremble beneath her, with emotion, as she gave a sob or two, while hanging in my arms; but, when the first burst of emotion was past, she started back suddenly, as if blaming herself, and stood at a short distance from me.

"George," said she, speaking first, and in a tone of elevation which made her forget, for a moment, her native tongue, — "I find I cannot hide from you my feelings, or rather my weakness: — you know the power you still have over me: — I conjure you to say at once, what your pleasure is, and let our conference be short!"

"I was astonished, and somewhat disconcerted, at the dignity and imperative energy of her words and manner, as the moon shone full upon her glowing countenance, such as I had often observed it when she was a girl, but now perfect in womanhood, and her eyes sparkling with passionate animation. "Mary," said I, calmly, "I do not mean to detain you, to give you the first word of confession: I believe I have been lately wandering from my own happiness: — I was not happy in my marriage, — will you tell me, Mary, if you were happy in yours?"

"She stood looking in my face as if her soul drank up every word that I uttered. After a pause, she said firmly, "No, George, I was *not* happy, although I had an affectionate well-meaning husband; but it required something besides these common qualities to make me happy, after having been so much with you! But he was not — O George, you have spoiled my happiness!" she exclaimed, covering her face with her hands: "it would have been better for me had I never seen you."

* * * * *

"Mary,"

"Mary," I said again, "can you be mine?" She clasped her hands together, and answered, "I can be any thing for you, George; but for God's sake do not trifle with my feelings, and break my heart."

"Will you be mine from this moment?" I said passionately, "my wife, — my love, — my companion, while life is granted to us on this earth."

"Oh yes, George," she said with energy, "I will be any thing, — every thing to you, with honour, — if you will indeed be mine:" she added, with her peculiar doubting and beseeching expression of countenance, "if you will really make *me* your wedded wife, who am nae gentlewoman, but your simple country Mary Ogilvie."

* * * * *
 "The fever of my spirits was over, my mind was calm, and my heart light; I was happy, and Mary was happy, and nature seemed happy around me. The very moon, as the old ballad sings, seemed to "shine blithe in my face," as I bounded homewards; and, as despising the opinion of the world, I rejoiced in the prospect of obtaining at last my yet lovely and blooming Mary Ogilvie."

We can afford no more extracts: but the specimens, which we have already given of this interesting little volume, sufficiently attest the skill and the talents of the young author in this pleasing department of writing.

ART. IX. *The History of England, during the Middle Ages.*
 Vol. III. By Sharon Turner, F.S.A. 4to. pp. 640. 2l. 2s.
 Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

MR. SHARON TURNER has long been known advantageously to the British antiquary by an account of the Anglo-Saxons; a work which, though it does not display all the classical or Scandinavian research which the topic invited, narrates in a powerful style the primæval history of the English nation. Undertaking afterward to record its progress during the middle ages, he published in 1814 the first, and in 1815 the second, volume of a history, the completion of which by this third volume we have now to record. He began it at the period at which he before left off; the first volume including the Norman Conquest and ending with Henry III.; and the second comprehending the reigns of our sovereigns from Edward I. to that of Henry V. We are sorry to learn from the Preface that the advance of years, and a serious declension of the author's health, have rendered literary application inconvenient and unadvisable; so that the original project of continuing this narration to our

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own times will probably be abandoned. To have achieved a work of this extent is, however, no feeble praise, and will secure to his name an honorable notice in the biographies of literary men.

Book i. of the volume before us begins with the accession of Henry VI. in 1422, and continues the annals of his eventful reign until its termination in 1461. A second excellent section relates the reign of Edward IV., and finishes with the year 1483. The third book comprizes the reigns of Edward V., Richard III., and Henry VII., with the cessation of whose life in 1509 the narration closes; and the pause is well chosen, as the controversies of the Reformation burst in with the ensuing reign, and connect it with modern history.

Although Rapin has chronicled this period with much research, and much impartiality, several documents relative to it have since been rescued from the manuscript-archives of governments, families, and libraries; and these supply some few authentic variations of received anecdotes: but, in the main, the popular notions about the character and conduct of the principal heroes are rather corroborated than shaken by these new investigations. On two points especially, Mr. Turner has attempted some deviation from antient statements; namely, the causes of the influence of Joan of Arc, and the degree of profligacy that characterized Richard III. In the former, he seems to have derived his point of view from Mr. Southey's epic poem, rather than from historic testimony; and in the other to have been principally biassed by the doubts of Horace Walpole. We shall bestow a few words on each of these controversies.

Joan of Arc made her first appearance on the public stage at the beginning of the year 1429. It should be remembered that at this period predisposing causes were at work, which were likely, if she had never existed, to produce the same sudden revolution in the fortunes of the English in France that accompanied her presence. Among these causes, we shall first name the recent defection of the entire clergy of France from the English interest, occasioned by the proposal of the Duke of Bedford to an assembly of the Notables at Paris to raise the supplies which he wanted, by revoking all the grants made to the church for the last forty years. This proposal was offered in 1428, and met with so strong an opposition that the Duke was obliged to desist: but from that time the entire body of the French clergy began, both in public and in private, actively to excite against the English the prejudices of nationality and of superstition, which turned and united the public mind in the very villages. An almost equally influential adverse cause was, secondly, the secret recent
defection

defection of the Duke of Burgundy from the English interest. Chiefly by means of the alliance of successive dukes of that province, the English had obtained their ascendancy in France: but, in the year 1428, the then Duke was coveting the territory of Jaquelina, heiress of Hainault, and found himself thwarted by a rival in the Duke of Gloucester: who aspired to the same inheritance, obtained the countenance of the English parliament, and sent to the assistance of Jaquelina five hundred men under the command of Lord Fitz-Walter, whose name Monstrelet corrupts into Silvatier. These troops were defeated on their landing by the Duke of Burgundy: but this petty warfare had the effect of rendering him inimical to the English nation.

According to Rapin, Joan of Arc was born in 1402; she was the daughter of an innkeeper, and was taught by her mother to be pious, and by her father to be useful. She divided her time between the stable and the church, groomed the horses, rode them unsaddled to water, and prayed to Saint Catharine and Saint Michael. It seems probable that, in early life, she had a natural daughter; for, after her death, the brothers of Joan of Arc recognized a female relation by that name, obtained for her both a dower from the King of France and a patent of nobility, and saw her married to the Chevalier des Armoises. Joan was athletic in person, could ride over any thing, was naturally courageous, and not afraid of a soldier. Women can make plausible pretexts for presenting themselves any where, can visit hostile troops of both parties, and can often succeed with a centinel in passing the portcullis of a besieged town. Hence Joan was admirably adapted for a letter-carrier, or message-bearer, in the disturbed districts; and she seems to have been employed as such by the clergy. As they usually cultivated the anonymous and the mystical in their communications, and disliked the responsibility of issuing written dispatches that were liable to be intercepted in case of search, it was natural that she should be trained to deliver important intelligence verbally. From her conduct, she must have been taught to use the names of saints to designate her several employers. Saint Catharine, that is the priest who officiates at Fierbois, bids me say so and so; — and Saint Michael, that is the priest who officiates at Chinon, bids me say so and so: — the name of the parish standing for that of the parish-priest. With this simple cipher to enable us to interpret her communications, they are all exactly such as we might expect.

When she passed from the employ of the priesthood into the King's service as courier extraordinary, her first visit was

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to Baudricourt, the governor of Vaucouleurs. Who was Baudricourt? An eminent vassal of the Duke of Burgundy; of which province his son, in recompence for the father's merit, was made governor. What is her message? Exactly such as the Duke's private chaplain would have been ordered to dictate. "You are to raise recruits in the name of the King and country, not of the Duke: you are to send a detachment to assist in raising the siege of Orleans; and you are to inquire whether any garrisons, in the English interest, are so placed as to oppose much impediment to our taking the King to Rheims in triumph to be crowned." Baudricourt performs his duty alertly, and is as alertly seconded by the clergy. Recruiting serjeants start up every where: Joan of Arc is dressed up in showy armour, and thus accompanies them to the rendezvous; where she swaggers against the English, and announces that she is to lead the army to the deliverance of Orleans, and the King to his coronation at Rheims. The clergy feel that she is a *prophetess*; that is, that she reveals the secret will of the Duke, the King, and the church, now in powerful coalition; *before* it suits these parties to proclaim their latent intentions. Accordingly, the pulpits describe her as a prophetess; and an apparently spontaneous levy-in-mass of the whole province seems to result from her individual endeavor. Baudricourt is himself so astonished at the magical importance of her name, that he sends her back to the royal residence, in order that her mission may be still farther accredited.

Now begins a systematic collusion. Joan of Arc had already been at Chinon, and might well know the King's person: but she is presented at court as a stranger, and her recognition of the King is represented as the effect of inspiration. It was objected, however, that inspiration could not inhabit a soldier's trull; when immediately a jury of matrons is impanelled, and the name of the Queen-mother is employed to attest that Joan was an immaculate virgin. Even the parliament of Poitiers was called in to vouch for her miraculous mission. It was clearly wished to create throughout France, on a large scale, that insurrection of the people against the English which had been so efficaciously realized in Burgundy.

The battle of Herrings, in which the English were successful, was fought on the 12th of February, 1429. It gave occasion to a proposal from the King of France, that Orleans should be evacuated in favor of the Duke of Burgundy; and held by him in trust until the end of the war: but this was haughtily rejected by the English regent; which angered the Duke of Burgundy, and accelerated his practical separation

from the English. He had powerful connections in the town; and the zeal of the inhabitants for its defence was now redoubled. It was then determined by the King's friends to succour Orleans, and the troops destined for this service were instructed to assemble at Blois. That the Duke of Burgundy sent a contingent of men to this rendezvous is manifest from the circumstance, that La Tremouille was one of the commanding officers: which noble family was so entirely in the confidence of the Duke, that La Tremouille the father had been one of the deputies appointed by John the former Duke of Burgundy to assist at the conference of 1419, which terminated in his assassination. (See *Art de vérifier les Dates*, vol. ii. p. 519., a work whence Mr. Turner might have gleaned many illustrations.)

The Catholic clergy had immemorially adopted from the Jewish church the practice of relating, in a marvellous manner, all incidents connected with the fate of their religion. This habit of legendary narration they called the gift of miracles; and they applied it to the exploits of Joan of Arc. When she came to join the rendezvous at Blois, her reputation had preceded her, and she was received like an angel from heaven. "*On voyait avec admiration* (says the Abbé Villaret) *une fille de dix-sept ans, (read, vingt-sept,) ne sachant ni lire ni écrire, remplir les fonctions de capitaine et de missionnaire. Elle rassembla tous les prêtres de la ville, dont elle composa un bataillon sacré, qui sortit de Blois marchant à la tête des troupes, précédé d'une bannière décorée du signe respecté de notre religion. L'air retentissait d'hymnes, que les soldats, transportés du même zèle, répétaient à haute voix.*"

In this state of enthusiasm, the convoy designed for Orleans departed on the 25th of April. According to Rapin, several French writers affirm that Joan commanded the guard, and conducted the convoy into the city: but Monstrelet, a contemporary author, says the contrary. The convoy having arrived on the 29th in the morning, near the Burgundian gate, (a significant precaution,) the bastard of Orleans made a sally to favor its entrance; and a fierce and bloody battle ensued, in which the English were defeated, and forced to let the convoy pass. Joan made her entry into Orleans amid the general acclamations of the people, who ascribed to her the good success of that day. A repetition of similar successes decided the English at length to raise the siege of Orleans; and they consoled their retreating soldiery with the excuse, that there was no resisting a woman who dealt with the devil. Consternation prepared a still more mortifying defeat at Patay for "*l'armée Anglaise, affaiblie par la retraite des troupes du*

Duc

Duc de Bourgogne," as a French historian significantly observes.

Throughout all this process, we perceive no very extraordinary talent, or heroism, or magnanimity, or enthusiasm, in Joan of Arc. An epic poet may do well to exaggerate the personal qualities of his agents, but the historian will generally find that the conduct of masses of men has some extensive interest for its directing principle. Joan of Arc, apparently so formidable a phantom, was but a streamer indicating the direction of the stormy wind; not the cause of that mightily altered temperature which occasioned its momentous swing and sway. — Her progress to Rheims is less surprising still than her success at Orleans: she every where finds the inhabitants of the summoned cities deciding to open their gates, because she was the bearer of secret instructions to the magistrates and clergy, which authorized them so to do; and they were as obedient to their natural allegiance in expelling the English, as they had been in receiving them. Some new light is perhaps thrown on the trial of Joan of Arc by means of the recent work of M. Le Brun de Charmettes: but his rather marvellous point of view is too much countenanced by Mr. Turner. Joan may, however, have been somewhat intoxicated by her own success, and may have delighted to favor the opinion of supernatural interposition, by recounting with complacency the dreams of her childhood and the prayers of her patriotism. — Let us now contrast with our hypothesis the words of Mr. Turner:

'A deliverance, wonderful in the opinion of every one, had now been achieved; and in the short space of eleven days from the time of Joan's departure from Blois; and with means that, according to human calculation, were inadequate to the attainment of a success so complete, so rapid, and so consequential. The siege had lasted seven months, with advantages that seemed to ensure the capture of the city; when the events of five days, produced by a young peasant girl but eighteen, drove an army that had never been conquered since Henry V. had entered France, from its endangered walls. It seemed a miracle; but it was the work of her persevering energy, her bravery, her skill, of the enthusiasm she had excited, and of some fortunate accidents to which we have alluded.

'That she was the agent of a superhuman power, was now the general conviction. It did not benefit the English, to believe or to be taught that the Devil was her supernatural friend; his imputed malignancy and admitted power, only made his assumed adherents the more dreadful. Joan, therefore, became more terrible to the English camp, by the calumnies that were unwisely circulated to depreciate her. They could mock the Frenchmen,
who

who declared that St. Michael assisted her; but they trembled at their own fancy, that the King of Hell was her ally.

Released from these dreams of superstition, we admit no superhuman agency for that, which natural means were competent to produce. The deliverance of Orleans, however extraordinary, sudden, and unexpected, was but a splendid example of what heroic enthusiasm can achieve; and an illustration of the great results produceable in war, by attacking single points with masses of concentrated force. The military judgment of the day, on her own side, opposed, and on the English, ridiculed, her measures; but her determination impetuously pursuing them, all the valor, skill, and troops in Orleans were drawn into her course; and each of the forts was attacked successively, by the whole of this combining energy and strength; and each had to resist the general torrent, by merely its own defensive powers. It was the application of this principle, which gave to Napoleon his first successes in Italy, which for a while resembled something more than human, when army after army of the Austrians was annihilated by his attacks. The novelty of such efforts ensures their success. Suffolk, fearing simultaneous assaults on other points, and doubtful if this was the real or the feigned one, and not then aware of the now acknowledged principle, that no fortress can be made impregnable against an adequate assailing force; and relying on the strength of his bulwarks, did not call together his troops from his surrounding works, and meet the French masses with his own, that must have overpowered them. But through the whole campaign, Suffolk displayed himself inferior in talent to the lamented Salisbury. If that nobleman had not fallen, the Maiden might have failed; for though Talbot was so famed as to be a French scarecrow for his bravery, yet it was rather as a valiant Paladin than as a skilful General: while Joan, without pretending to be so and without knowing it, from the instinctive sagacity of great natural genius, from her happy ignorance of all technical rules, from her soul of fire, her absorbing enthusiasm, and that virtual irresponsibility which hesitated at no difficulties, appeared in her actions, as a commander-in-chief superior to them all. If we pass beyond these considerations, to the providential dispositions of human events, we must be careful to make the important distinction between an instrument used, and an agent commissioned.

Under the reign of Henry VI., Mr. Turner has manifested very meritorious industry in bringing to light various Catholic writings and preachings, which sensibly contributed to prepare the chief controversies of the Reformation. — The reign of Edward IV. strikes us as the best part of the whole volume; it is full of vouchers, condensed, and interesting. — Richard III. is treated with marked lenity; and yet no doubts are thrown on the greatest of his supposed crimes, the murder in the Tower of the two sons of Edward IV. During the entire reign of Richard, and during the early part of that

of

of Henry VII., no suspicion appears to have been extensively entertained that the two young princes, whose titles indeed had been smothered in the Tower, had in reality ceased to exist. On the contrary, when Lambert Simnell made his appearance, many were ready to hail him as Edward V.; and when Perkin Warbeck stood forth, many were disposed to hail him as the Duke of York, and to proclaim him by the name of Richard IV. As Richard had founded his title to the crown on the bastardization of the children of Edward IV., it was most consistent with this legal title to order the one to be brought up at Oxford by Simon the priest under the vulgar name of Lambert Simnell, and to send the other to be brought up at Tournay as Peter Osbeck, or Perkin Warbeck. The earliest evidence of the murder of the princes makes its appearance in the most suspicious circumstances, while Perkin Warbeck was in the zenith of his popularity, had claimed to be Duke of York, and was recognized as such by his mother, by his aunt, by all the partizans of the house of York, and by the Kings of Scotland and of France: but while Henry VII. had the strongest possible interest to cry him down as an impostor. Let us dissect this evidence a little.

"There were four persons," says Lord Bacon, "that could speak upon knowlege to the murder of the Duke of York; Sir James Tirrel, the employed man from King Richard, John Dighton and Miles Forrest his servants, the two butchers or tormentors, and the priest of the Tower who buried them. Of which four, Miles Forrest and the priest were dead; and there remained alive only Sir James Tirrel and John Dighton. These two the King caused to be committed to the Tower, and examined touching the manner of the death of the two innocent princes. They agreed both in a tale, as the King gave out, to this effect. That King Richard having directed his warrant for the putting of them to death to Brackenbury the lieutenant of the Tower, was by him refused. Whereupon the King directed his warrant to Sir James Tirrel, to receive the keys of the Tower from the lieutenant, for the space of a night, for the King's special service. That Sir James Tirrel accordingly repaired to the Tower by night, attended by his two servants afore-named, whom he had chosen for that purpose. That himself stood at the stair's foot, and sent these two villains to execute the murder. That they smothered them in their bed; and, that done, called up their master to see the naked dead bodies, which they had laid forth. That they were buried under the stairs, and some stones cast upon them. That when the report was made to King Richard, that his will was done, he gave Sir James Tirrel great thanks, but took exception to the place of their burial, being too base for them that were king's children. Whereupon, another night, by the King's warrant

rant renewed, their bodies were removed by the priest of the Tower, and buried by him in some place, which by reason of the priest's death soon after, could not be known. Thus much was then delivered abroad, to be the result of those examinations: but the King nevertheless made no use of them in his declarations: whereby, as it seems, those examinations left the business somewhat perplexed. And as for Sir James Tirrel, he was soon after beheaded in the Tower-yard, for other matters of treason."

It is evident, on the face of Lord Bacon's account, that this whole story reposes on the solitary testimony of John Dighton, the suborned spy of Henry VII. All that he makes Tirrel to have confessed may be wholly invented; for Tirrel was soon to be beheaded, and could not disavow the imputations, and it might be purposed to blacken his memory in order to apologize for his execution. Some of the circumstances are improbable; for instance, that King Richard should have taken exception to the burial-place of the two boys as being too base for them:—he, who had degraded them as illegitimate, would not be jealous of their being treated otherwise than as king's children. On the whole, if it can be deemed probable that Lambert Simnell was the true Edward V., and Perkin Warbeck the true Duke of York, it is evident that the imbecility of the one, and the cowardice of the other, enabled Henry VII. to cry them down as impostors. We have already gone into many details on this subject in our account of *Rey's Essays on Richard III.*, (see our lxviiiith volume, p. 534.) and refer the reader to that article for a fuller investigation. As a farther specimen of Mr. Turner's work, however, we copy his narration of the enterprize of Perkin Warbeck.

‘ The next great ebullition of discontent appeared in the countenance given to the youth, who pretended to be the young Duke of York, brother of Edward V. It was hoped, or believed by many, that this Prince had not been put to death by Richard, but had escaped; and a young man of his age, who had travelled much abroad, going first into Portugal, suddenly appeared in Ireland; asserting, that he was the youthful son of the still-lamented Edward IV.

‘ The Irish credulously welcomed him. The French King, then at variance with Henry, sent for him; assigned him a guard, and treated him as a prince. The English exiles that were abroad hastened to him at Paris; and expeditions, that alarmed Henry into a hasty pacification with the French King, were publicly projected; but this treaty separating Charles from his interests, the pretending Duke of York retired to the Duchess Margaret. She received him with full recognition; gave him also

a guard of honor, and called him The White Rose, Prince of England.

This countenance, and the plausibility of his conversation, and the suitableness of his appearance to his pretensions, made such an impression in his favor, that it was received in England as an undoubted truth, that he was the real Prince; and, therefore, anterior in right to the crown, to his sister Elizabeth. Not only the common people, but divers noble and worshipful men believed and affirmed it to be true. Seditions began now to spring up on every side. Many assembled in companies, and passed over to him in Flanders. Some, from real conviction, excited others to befriend him: many, from dissatisfaction to Henry, by whom, they thought, they had not been sufficiently rewarded: and not a few, from a desire to benefit by change and commotion. Two persons only were now surviving of the murderers of the young Princes, Sir James Tyrrel and John Dighton. The King committed them to the Tower; subjected them to examination, and circulated their confessions among the public.

Henry placed vessels of war, and soldiers he could trust, to guard his coasts; and employed every agency and means to discover who this princely pretender really was. The result of his inquiries his ambassadors communicated to the Austrian Duke of Burgundy; and solicited him to discountenance the imposture. His final answer to Henry, without deciding on the genuineness of the pretender, was, that he would not assist him, but could not prevent the Lady Margaret from exercising her own discretion on the occasion.

Henry, with great wisdom, endeavoured to defeat the conspiracy by the gentlest means. He persuaded Clifford to abandon it. He offered pardon and reward to all who would do the same; and obtaining the names of its supporters in England, he arrested Lord Fitzwalter, two knights, four gentlemen, and six clergymen of rank, who abetted it. He forbid all trading to Flanders; and astonished the world, by arresting, on the accusation of Clifford, his former preserver, Sir William Stanley, to whom he owed his throne. Stanley was confined to his own chamber in the Tower. The charge against him was, that he was secretly abetting the imposture, although in the confidential post of lord-chamberlain to Henry. Henry, at first, would not believe it. When the truth became evident, he arrested Sir William, who ingenuously confessed it. For this treachery he was arraigned at Westminster, adjudged to death; and suffered at Tower-hill on the 16th of February.

The King now inflicted severities like those for which Richard had been reprobated. He caused divers persons to suffer condign punishment in England, for their seditious or disloyal expressions; and then sent an army into Ireland, under Sir Edward Poynings, to destroy the supporters of his youthful competitor. Poynings assembled the Irish nobility, who gave him fair promises; but, dreading his threats, withdrew into the woods and marshes of the country. Sir Edward attempted a vigorous pursuit, but found his

force insufficient to act against them, in their fastnesses and retreats. He surprized the Earl of Kildare; yet Henry thought it politic not only to release him, but to appoint him the Lord-Lieutenant of the island.

‘ The young adventurer at length sailed from Flanders; and on the 3d of July attempted to land at Deal in Kent. But finding that a party which he had landed was attacked as enemies, he returned to Flanders, to consult on his further enterprize.

‘ He sailed to Ireland, and thence passed into Scotland, where the young King James decided to receive him with honor, as the genuine Duke of York; and to encourage his adherents, and evince his own conviction, he married him to his near kinswoman, the Earl of Huntley’s daughter; and supplied him with an army to enter England by the northern borders.

‘ His army plundered and ravaged in Northumberland; but, satisfied with their booty, would advance no further. No Englishmen welcomed the pretending Prince; and on his return to Scotland, the King began to question his reality, and to relax in his behalf. In January, 1496, Henry apprized his parliament of the Scotch aggression.

‘ Lord Daubeney was dispatched with an army towards Scotland; but the people of Cornwall, resenting a new taxation, assembled in a rebellion, formidable for its numbers, though not for their efficiency. They chose captains, and moved to Taunton. The King was alarmed to hear, that Lord Audley and several of the minor nobility had joined them; and that they were marching to London. He called back Lord Daubeney from the north, to meet them; while he commissioned the Earl of Surrey to defend Durham and the Scottish borders.

‘ The King, chusing to let their first impetuosity waste itself, the rebels marched, unopposed, to Wells, to Salisbury, to Winchester, and thence into Kent, and reached Blackheath. They were meditating to enter the metropolis, and attack the Tower; when the King, sending the Earl of Oxford with a select body of archers and men at arms, to take them in the rear, marched out of the city to attack them in front. In the first assault, at Deptford-bridge, they took Lord Daubeney prisoner; but unexpectedly released him. The King had come upon them on the 22d of June, two days earlier than he had threatened. They could not long resist his forces. They were soon dispersed; many killed, more taken, and Audley was hanged. The invasion of the Scots was repelled, and retaliated, by the Earl of Surrey, till the King of Scotland agreed to a truce, and to convey Perkin Warbeck out of his dominions.

‘ Perkin retired to Ireland, and endeavoured to revive the rebellion in Cornwall. He called himself Richard IV., obtained some support, and assaulted Exeter. Repulsed there, he attempted Taunton; the Cornish men talked of being desperate; but when Henry’s army was assembled under his most trusty noblemen, Perkin, afraid of risking a battle, suddenly destroyed all his own hopes, by flying at midnight, with sixty horsemen, over the coun-

try to Southampton. There he sought the shelter of the church, at Bewdley abbey; and soon, with subdued and desponding mind, submitted to the King, and was taken to London. He was carefully watched, but not harshly treated, till he escaped out of custody, and reached the sea-coast. Closely pursued, he retraced his steps; and solicited an asylum in the priory of Sheen, near Richmond. From this refuge, he was taken to London; set in the stocks a whole day, before the door of Westminster-hall; exposed to the reproaches and insult of a deriding populace; and was carried through London the next day, to the same degradation at the standard in Cheapside, where he read a confession of his imposture, from a copy of his own writing. On that night, June the 15th, he was committed to the Tower. There Warwick, the son of Clarence, had been confined for fifteen years, by Henry, so continually secluded from all society, that his mind sank into such a state of fatuity, as to be unable, says the old chronicler, "to discern a goose from a capon." Yet, an Augustine fryar, attempting to engraft on his name a new conspiracy against Henry, persuaded one of his scholars to personate him in Kent. But the fryar and his puppet were soon apprehended; the latter was hanged on Shrove-Tuesday; the other doomed to perpetual imprisonment.

Perkin was enabled, by means unexplained, to bribe and interest three of his keepers, to let him and Warwick escape from the Tower. They were taken. Perkin was drawn to Tyburn, and there executed; and the son of Clarence, for having endeavored to escape with him, from an unjust confinement, was arraigned for high treason, confessed his effort to release himself, and for this offence, was beheaded on the 28th of November, 1499. This act too much resembles the worst deeds of Richard III. The earl's imprisonment was an act of violent injustice; and the execution of one so debilitated by it, was little less than legal murder. The private comforts of Henry afterwards began to lessen. His eldest son soon died; his own health gave way, and he was in his grave at fifty-two. But who can wear a crown gained in battle, and contested afterwards by disaffection, with innocence or happiness? Virtue and felicity are the guests of other homes.

This valuable work displays extensive researches among the still manuscript-documents of our history, and manifests in a striking manner the injurious consequences of a popular prejudice in favor of hereditary right to power. The remoter annals of our country must always possess a patriotic interest; and perhaps the atrocities of personal criminality, and the desolations of civil warfare, with which they abound, may tend to endear the security and stability of the present better time.

Mr. Turner has also entered more thoroughly into an exposition of the manners of our ancestors than Hume has done, or, we may perhaps say, *any* of our historical writers; which is apparent in a variety of passages that treat of the progress

progress of religion and literature, as well as in several parts of the general narrative, such as the account of the battle of Agincourt. We regret that the circumstances already mentioned will probably oppose the fulfilment of Mr. T.'s original intentions with regard to the state of society, the alteration in our constitution and jurisprudence, &c.; in the history of which we have still many chasms, after all the materials that have been explored by the diligence of Henry, and the luminous views that have been exhibited by the philosophic mind of Hume.

The style of the present historian is perhaps too much modelled on that of Gibbon, but by no means fails always in its attempts to be pithy and powerful. It is to be regretted, however, that an inaccurate knowledge of the simple art of punctuation, and a very superfluous use of its notations, often render Mr. Turner's meaning difficult, or doubtful, when the words themselves, properly separated, would be clear and impressive. We may remark, also, the peculiarity with which Mr. T., in relating events that passed, or speaking of persons who lived two or three centuries ago, occasionally compares them suddenly and without preparation to those of recent times. While reading history, we are carried back to the period, placed in company with the individuals, and share in the transactions which are recorded; and so abrupt a summons to return to our own days, and to passing events, unpleasingly destroys the interesting illusion, while it gives a shock to the arrangement of our ideas, and makes us start as if hastily awakened from a dream.

ART. X. *Memoirs of Henry the Great*, and of the Court of France during his Reign. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. Boarda. Harding, Triphook, and Co. 1824.

THE interest excited towards historical biography by the elegant compositions of Miss Aikin, in her *Memoirs of Elizabeth and King James*, first drew the present author's mind, he tells us, to the study of the subject which has led to the present publication; and he adds that 'the only record of the reign of Henry the Fourth, known by the English reader, is a translation of Perefice, the preceptor of Louis XIV., grandson of the subject of our history.' We have expressed our opinion of the merits of Miss Aikin as an historical biographer. She may be justly termed an original writer: her narrative is drawn with great care, judgment, and fidelity from various authorities, the relative value of whose testimony she weighs in her own scales: she estimates with strict

impartiality the character of actors in the events which she describes; her reflections on those events are her own; and they are full of good sense and discrimination, often tracing out the faint and almost invisible line which connects causes and consequences. The reader of the present volumes, however, will not find a Miss Aikin for his companion. She certainly would not have told him that 'the only record of the reign of Henry the Fourth (of France), known to the English reader, is a translation of *Perefixe*;' while *Sully's Memoirs* must have been lying on her desk, in the original, no doubt, and probably also in the excellent English translation of Charlotte Lennox; and how the writer before us could make this statement we know not, as he often quotes Sully in his narrative.

Illustrated as are the memoirs of the invaluable *Rosny* by a great variety of valuable notes, they form a work of such acknowledged excellence, mix so much of private character and incident with public history, are so pregnant with moral as well as political maxims, and exhibit so faithful and striking a picture of the monarch and his minister, that we may scarcely indulge an expectation of seeing it surpassed. A few years ago, however, Madame de Genlis undertook to write a history of "*Henri le Grand*." She stated in her preface that, having passed a considerable time at Berlin during the period of her emigration, and having there enjoyed protection and tranquillity, she considered it as a duty which gratitude imposed on her, to dedicate the intended work to the King of Prussia; and his Majesty, in a letter from Paretz, dated September, 1803, expressed his willingness to receive the homage. The government of France, however, — of that France which had shed so much blood in the prostituted name of liberty! — would not suffer the book to be published; and it was accordingly deferred till the restoration of the monarchy. It appeared in 1815, though it did not reach us at that time, and is probably not much known here, but is now on our table, in three volumes. If we be asked, "What has this to do with the present English '*Memoirs of Henry the Great*?' " we answer, More than seems to have been intended to be known: for we believe that if any person will take the trouble to examine, he will find the whole, notes and all, of Madame Genlis's three volumes, incorporated in the two before us. Chapter after chapter is translated *verbatim*, and without the slightest intimation. We do not say, however, that Madame Genlis is never once mentioned: since a reference is perhaps made to her five or six times, in the course of the work, for some particular statement or remark; while *seven hundred* of her
pages

pages are translated without a single acknowledgement. Seemingly as a blind to cover this proceeding, it is stated in the brief preface that, 'besides the authorities quoted in the following volumes, manuscript-documents in the Royal Library at Paris have been consulted, for the purpose of verifying the statement of former writers and contributing additional facts to what have hitherto appeared relative to the subject of these Memoirs.' There are certainly a few references in the second volume to the Royal Library at Paris: but, on turning to the pages of Sully, we have never failed to find these identical references in some of the notes. Perhaps there is a *manuscript-copy* of Madame Genlis's work in the Paris Library, and her translator has consulted *that*.

Sometimes the writer breaks away from his fair leader, and wanders among the pages of Perefixe, Sully, or some other historian quoted in the notes which illustrate that work: but we quickly catch him again in the steps of Madame de Genlis, whose attractions are quite irresistible. It is possible that this lady herself did not always quote Sully with perfect exactness; and if she committed a mistake, we fear that her present translator was not likely to discover it. Speaking of the number of Protestants who were murdered at the massacre of St. Bartholomew, she observes: "*Plusieurs auteurs disent qu'il périt en tout, à Paris et dans les provinces, environ quarante mille personnes. Le Duc de Sully, si fidèle dans ses récits, si impartial dans ses jugements, affirme que le nombre des victimes alla jusqu'à soixante mille; et c'est là, sans doute, la vérité.*" (B. i. p. 79.) The present writer, without the most distant allusion to Madame Genlis, says, 'Several authors affirm that there perished in all, at Paris and in the provinces, about forty thousand souls. The Duke de Sully, so faithful in his recitals and so impartial in his decisions, affirms that the number of victims extended to sixty thousand, and there is little doubt but the fact was as he has stated.' (Vol. i. p. 137.) Sully, however, says that "the number of Protestants massacred during eight days, over all the kingdom, amounted to *seventy thousand*." (Vol. i. 4to. p. 31. Mrs. Lennox's translation.)

Another instance just presents itself. Half a score pages are employed in describing the attack and capture of Cahors by the King of Navarre in 1580, and frequent references are made to Sully, as if the narrative was drawn up from his Memoirs: instead of which it is translated word for word from Madame Genlis. The capture of Cahors astonished all Europe; and the rashness of the attempt, the duration of the contest, and the prodigies of valor which were performed, all

combined to characterize it as one of the most extraordinary military achievements recorded in history. The work before us states (vol. i. p. 289.) that Henry, 'during these reiterated conflicts, and such a procrastinated resistance, only lost *seventy-two men*, but the number of sufferers extended throughout his whole army.' Here the writer is following Mad. Genlis (vol. i. p. 145.); who took this part of her narrative from other historians, and not from Sully, for he does not mention the number of men killed or wounded. The French editor's note in Mrs. Lennox's translation, however, repeats the statement of other historians as to *seventy* men slain.

We certainly should not have objected to an undertaking to translate Madame Genlis's work; and if, by consulting old historians, the translator could correct any error and supply any omission, a few notes might have been added with advantage: but who can deem it a fair appropriation of another writer's labor and merit to translate an entire work of three volumes, and palm it off as an original composition? The present translator may occasionally have thrown in a commentary or reflection of his own, but it is impossible to award him any merit lest it should be misplaced. Many weak and silly reflections occur in these volumes; whether any of them are original we cannot say: but, if they are not, the person who adopts them is responsible.

Shortly after the coronation, Henry III. was attacked by an excruciating pain in the ear; when, calling to mind that his brother Francis II. had died of an abscess in that organ, which was attributed to poison, he conceived that Monsieur had conspired against his life; in which idea he was confirmed from various false reports that were industriously circulated. During the first impulse of his fury, he summoned the King of Navarre; and, expressing the chagrin he should experience in leaving the crown to such an unnatural successor, he charged him with the execution of a revenge which would have ensured Henry the crown, or at least have placed him nearer in succession, in the event of the poison not proving mortal. The King of Navarre did not conceal the horror with which such a proposal inspired him. "*On the contrary,*" said that Prince, "*both my honour and my glory exact that I should watch to the utmost of my ability, in order to preserve the life of a prince who, at this moment, according to the order of succession, stands alone between myself and the royal authority. I may not personally feel attachment for him, but it is my duty to defend him.*" This, however, was not all; for the generous Henry, by his arguments, refuted the charge brought against Monsieur with so much warmth, that the King in consequence promised to adopt no measures against his brother. On the recovery of the monarch, the innocence of Monsieur was recognised; when the former returned thanks to the King of Navarre for having prevented the

commission of such a crime, and his esteem for the Prince increased accordingly. The King, however, did not cherish less animosity towards his brother, whom he caused to be constantly watched; notwithstanding which precaution, Monsieur found means to escape on the 15th of September, 1575.'

This is copied from Madame Genlis, vol. i. p. 110. She goes on directly to state that the Duke proceeded to the city of Dreux, which was one of the appendages to his title, and where he found a strong escort: but her translator deserts her for a short time, and makes, or adopts from Perefixe, the following reflection:

'Had the two brothers, namely, the King and Monsieur, adds Perefixe, been out of the world, the crown of right devolved to the King of Navarre. Now, to all appearance, one was on the eve of death; and it was at his option to have assassinated the other, having the favourites, the King's officers, the Guises, their friends, and almost all the nobility, at his devotion; for Monsieur did not rank high in public estimation, almost universally hated, and only supported by the brave Bussy d'Amboise. *How few princes would have suffered such a favourable opportunity to escape them! Our hero, however, (for after such an action we may well designate him by that title,) felt shocked on witnessing the furious conduct of Henry III., and disdained to place it to his advantage.* "Is there a more praiseworthy ambition than the being able to moderate its impulses, when they are not founded in justice; and feeling desirous of preserving one's conscience and honour, rather than compass the possession of a crown by indirect means?"'

Madame de G. had fixed her standard of morals higher than this, and probably did not see the wonderful merit of not murdering a man whose inheritance, or whose crown, would devolve on the perpetrator, merely because he happened to have a good opportunity. If Henry IV. had no other title to the appellation of a hero than this absence of the organ of murder, she would probably have hesitated in conferring it; and if she found such weak or wicked reflections as this in any of the old writers whom she consulted, she had too correct a taste and too much sense of propriety to adopt them. She would not consider it as very decent, or very just, to insinuate that 'few princes in the situation of the King of Navarre would have suffered such a favorable opportunity to escape them!'

It is impossible that the massacre of Bartholomew should not have a dreadful effect on the manners of a country; and it is equally impossible that it could have been perpetrated by any people among whom bigotry and fanaticism had not already extinguished every sentiment of humanity. The following account of the state of manners under the reigns of Charles IX. and Henry III. is very striking:

'From

‘ From the period when the Calvinists had invited foreigners to ravage France, the populace became habituated to assassinations. Violent animosities, and furious resentments, frequently too well founded, authorized in public opinion all the vengeance, those countless duels, and the ambuscades and treasons, so uniformly practised. The murders of the Prince of Condé and the first Duke of Guise did not dishonour their authors: Marshal Saint André also fell on the field of honour, but by the hand of an assassin.

‘ National energy had become the most disgusting barbarity; it was almost universally regarded as a praiseworthy fidelity to the party, and an heroic zeal. The intrepid Montluc, so magnanimous in battle, and so devoted to the cause of royalty, mingled with those glorious characteristics a disgusting cruelty which he proudly extols in his Memoirs. The Duke of Guise followed sword in hand into the antechamber of the King, a gentleman of whom he thought he had cause of complaint. Villequier, the favourite of Henry III., stabbed his wife in the Louvre in a state of pregnancy, and on the point of lying-in, merely from effect of jealousy. The lady of Chateau Neuf, says Brantome, deprived her faithless husband of virility. Even gallantry and love savoured of this ferocious sentiment: it was a praiseworthy act, on the first signal of a mistress, to plunge into the river, without knowing how to swim; to come in contact with wild beasts; and to spill *your own* blood with a poniard. Henry III. wrote a letter with his blood to a princess of whom he was enamoured; and according to Mathieu, the historian, *Souvroy opened and closed the wound, as it became necessary to supply the pen.* Indiscretion and want of delicacy were combined with the softer passions; life was incessantly exposed to gratify and captivate a woman; but her reputation was forfeited, and her dishonour proclaimed without the least scruple.

‘ After the executions of La Mole and Coconnas, Queen Margaret and the young Duchess of Nevers, to whom they had been lovers, caused their heads to be conveyed to them, *bathed them with tears, and embalmed them with their own hands.* A similar violent mode of proceeding was manifested in cases of gratitude and friendship; in short, every sentiment was characterised by the most vehement passions.

‘ Marshal Tavannes, the particular confidant of Catherine de Medicis, seriously proposed to the Queen that she would permit him to go and cut off the nose of the Duchess Valentinois, her rival. Catherine stating in reply that such an action must prove his ruin, he made answer, he was fully aware of the circumstance, but that he would cheerfully forfeit his life to serve her; and the Queen found it very difficult to prevent that courtier from testifying this proof of his attachment. The princes of the blood, the Guises, the Montmorencies, and the other chiefs of great houses, separating their interests from those of the country at large, appropriated to themselves creatures solely attached to their own persons. Simple gentlemen piqued themselves on a mad devotion for particular noblemen, whom they denominated their masters -

The

The being attached to a prince or an eminent personage, was not then synonymous with receiving a pension or a title; interest constituted no feature in such associations; glory was alone sought in a self-devotion, without reserve, to the particular individual whose character and talents were admired: virtue formed no link in these dangerous engagements; but honour was the uniform guarantee of their fidelity. The same ardour was apparent in cases of friendship; individuals became bound by oaths never to abandon one another, uniformly to adhere to the same party, to share good and ill in common, and, above all, to unite in accomplishing vengeance of whatsoever nature it might be. The absence of a friend was the signal for mourning; on which occasions, not only was the black costume adopted, but the votary would even deny himself every species of dissipation.

Saint Gelais, during the absence of his friend D'Aubigné, *suffered his hair and beard to grow to an unusual length*; at his return, Henry, on beholding him, said to one of his gentlemen, "*Go and tell Saint Gelais to get himself shaved and have his hair cut, since D'Aubigné his friend is now come back.*" Every thing assumed the spirit of ancient chivalry, degenerated and stripped of those great moral and humane principles which raised their ancestors to such a pinnacle of honour and of glory.*

Madame de Genlis observes that, these excesses not being the fruits of atheism and impiety, a great king might with little difficulty restore the nation to its true character; and this most desirable event occurred on the accession of Henry IV. to the throne, which took place in 1589, after the assassination of his predecessor by the Jacobin monk, James Clement. The character which Madame G. draws of Henry III. does her no credit. (See vol. i. p. 417. of the present work.)

It was the dying advice of one of the most intriguing, abandoned, and wicked women that ever lived, Catherine de Medicis, the Queen-mother of Henry III., "Remember, if you wish to enjoy peace, so necessary to France, you must tolerate liberty of conscience to your subjects; as it is obvious that the Germans and other sovereign princes, during my time, have never been able to pacify with tears those troubles which religion has occasioned in their states." This was the sentiment of a woman who had acted, throughout her life, on the opposite principle. Her wretched and degraded son lived but a very few months to profit by it. That which experience had taught her, meditation on the human character, and observation on the effects of coercion in matters of opinion, had long before taught to Henry the Great. In a work now in the course of publication, and which we shall take an

* Translated from p. 81. to 84. of Madame Genlis.

early opportunity of farther noticing, "*Mémoires et Correspondance de Duplessis-Mornay*," a great number of letters and official documents are collected, which evince the very enlightened views entertained by that monarch on the subject of religious toleration. In one of the letters, addressed to Henry III., and dated 1585, he urges him very strenuously to assuage the religious fury which had so long ravaged France. We are tempted to quote a passage or two in their original orthography :

" *On propose de mettre en son entier l'Eglise par les armes. Qui peult mieulx juger de l'inutilité des armes, en ce qui concerne la religion, que vostre Majesté, qui les ayant employées si heureusement en toutes sortes contre ceulx qu'on pretend ruiner, n'en a enfin aultre profict, que de recognoistre que les plus heureux succès ne succedent point contre les consciences ; qu'aussi peu ont de puissance les armes sur les armes, que le rasoir d'ung chirurgien sur l'entendement de l'homme, et sur les affections qui lui commandent ? Les remèdes, Sire, doivent avoir une analogie avec les maux et les malades. La force de sa nature gaigne sur le corps, le son sur l'oreille, la raison sur l'ame. Appliqués la force sur les armes, elle ne peut faire aulcung effect ; aussi, peu qu'ou la raison dessus l'oreille, ou le son sur la masse d'ung corps.*"

Nothing can exceed the felicity of this illustration. — Again :

" *Les dissensions en la religion ont travaillé l'Eglise ancienne ; plusieurs heresies ont pullulé entre le peuple, ont mesmes infecté des Empereurs. Qu'a faict lors l'Eglise ? L'Histoire en est pleine. Ils ont veu que l'heresie estoit une opinion ; que toute opinion avoit son siege en la teste ; que c'estoit une image fausse de raison, qui ne pouvoit s'effacer que par la presence de la raison mesme. Ils ont donc assemblé les Conciles ; ils ont apellé nombre de gens suffisans de toutes parts. Chacung a mis en avant paisiblement ce qu'il a sceu. L'opinion enfin a cedé à la science, l'ombre à la lumiere, la vraisemblance à la verité, la sophisterie à la raison.*"

He recommends the calling of a council to compose religious differences rather than the hazarding of battles to compress them.

" *Combien seroit il plus louable de rassembler ung concile que de hasarder une bataille ? De perdre une conference de propos, que d'espandre tant de sang en vain.*" — "*Dieu m'est temoing que je vous escriis de cœur. Tout ce que je cherche, Sire, c'est de voir le temple balayé, afin qu'y puissions converser tous ensemble. Chacung est d'accord, et de tous temps, qu'il y a des abus entre nous. Qu'on les repurge ; ne nous bandons point contre nous mesmes ; n'allons point subtiliser à nostre dam ; ne nous monstons point sçavans contre nostre salut,*" &c. &c.

Such

Such was the language of this great man when he was King of Navarre; and it is to his immortal glory that he forgot not, when King of France, the maxims of toleration which he had imbibed in his earlier years. He had always the good as well as the glory of France at heart, and entered on the duties of a monarch not without a due consideration of the momentous responsibility attached to him. At the battle of Ivry, which cleared his passage to the throne, when the trumpets had already sounded and the din of arms commenced, Henry, clasping his hands and raising his eyes to Heaven, thus poured forth his ejaculations: "Lord, thou knowest my thoughts, and thou divest into the recesses of my heart. If it be for the advantage of my people that I should possess the crown, favour my cause and protect my arms: but if I am destined to be one of those monarchs whom thou dispensest in thine anger, take from me my life with my crown: grant that my death may deliver France from the calamities of war, and may my blood be the last which is shed in this quarrel!" (Genlis, vol. ii. p. 57., and vol. i. p. 471. of the translation.) In the midst of the carnage, he frequently exclaimed "*Sauvez les François, main-basse sur l'Étranger,*" Spare the French, but strike home at the foreigners.—When the battle was over, however, and only a single body of Swiss remained on the field refusing to surrender, Henry recalled Marshal Biron, who had ordered up his cannon to annihilate them, and despatched a trumpeter, offering quarter to these brave fellows, and good treatment. This generous conduct was well requited, for the Swiss laid down their arms, and consented to enter into his service. Intelligence of the circumstance being also communicated to the Cantons, they returned thanks, and Protestant Henry gained the affection of the five small Catholic Cantons of Switzerland.

Numerous were the difficulties which Henry had to encounter ere he could mount the throne; and certainly those which regarded religion were the most formidable. Before he could place reliance on any effective portion of the nobility, whose sentiments in the first instance he was desirous to obtain, he engaged in a treaty with them, binding himself to maintain the Catholic religion, and to confer no benefices or ecclesiastical dignities on any but Catholics; and promising to call a national council, on the article of religion, as soon as possible. It was a deviation from that liberality which he really entertained, that one of these stipulations was that no other faith should be publicly exercised in France but the Romish religion, except in those places which were in pos-
session

session of the Huguenots; and that only Catholic commanders should be nominated to govern cities and castles taken from the enemy, &c. The nobility had called many assemblies; and the result of the first was that Henry should be solicited to recant his Protestant faith: to which he replied, that no such conditions could be demanded unless on perfect conviction. When this request was afterward modified into a petition that he would take measures to instruct himself in the apostolic and Roman tenets, the monarch assented, and we know to what this instruction led. He found the utmost difficulty in adjusting the conflicting claims of the Catholics and Calvinists: if a town was surrendered, the leaders of both parties sought to obtain its government; and whichever prevailed the other was dissatisfied. His bosom friend and faithful minister, Sully, wished to have the government of Mante for himself, after the battle of Ivry: but "the King," says he, "of whom I requested this post, bestowed it on a Catholic*, at which I made loud complaints. I confess, to my confusion, that if I had seriously considered the situation the King was then in, every moment upon the point of being abandoned by the foreigners for want of payments, and those Catholics that were in his service ready to seize the slightest occasion of disgust for a pretence to quit him, I should not have murmured that he granted to a Catholic, who had but little affection for his person, what he refused to a faithful servant." (Book iv.) Mad. Genlis says, "*Rosny avoua qu'il fut si profondément irrité du refus personnel, que sous le pretexte de ses blessures, qui le mettoient, en effet, hors d'état de servir dans le moment, il demanda au roi la permission de se retirer dans ses terres, et qu'il partît avec la résolution de ne jamais revenir.*" (Vol. ii. p. 69. Translation, vol. i. p. 486.) We have copied Sully's own account, where we do not see a word mentioned about his determination to retire to his estates and never again return to court. It was on a prior occasion that this happened. When a very young man, Rosny had consented to be the second of an officer in a duel: when Henry, who was desirous of preventing such conflicts, sent for Rosny, and lectured him very severely for the part which he had taken. Rosny was piqued, and answered, "That he was neither Henry's subject nor his vassal," and threatened to quit his service. The King passed over this little ebullition of anger, and "I attached myself to him," says Sully, "more strongly than before; resolving, from that moment,

* Henry bestowed it on Monsieur de Rosny, the youngest brother of Maximilian de Bethune, afterward Duke de Sully.

never to have any other master." This anecdote is given at the end of the first book of the Memoirs. — The rage for duelling was so great at this period of history that it was adopted on the most trivial occasions; and lives were sacrificed with a recklessness and ferocity that had no parallel in Europe.

' Towards the conclusion of the year (1602) Henry ratified an edict whereby he prohibited duelling and challenges, equally without as in the interior of the kingdom, under pain of death and confiscation of property, as well for the seconds as the principals concerned; ordering that the trial should be carried on in memory of those who fell in such encounters, &c. This law was in the first instance productive of the greatest benefit; but the edict was by degrees disregarded. Persons in power obtained indulgences that were detrimental to the public, so that the law coming into disuse, the edict was divested of its salutary effects.

' In the *Journal de l'Etoile* we find it was made known to the King that from the period of his accession to the throne, until 1608, no less than 4000 gentlemen were killed in duels. Louis XIII. renewed the laws of his father, Henry IV.; and Louis XIV. repressed duels with even more severity and success.'

It is a prevailing mistake that the order of the Knights of Malta, which was founded on the principles of chivalry, rather encouraged duelling than otherwise; and many travellers have mentioned a particular street where affairs of this kind frequently took place, and have erroneously asserted that it was a privileged spot. The fact is, that the statutes of the Order are very severe against duelling; and, as the young knights were spirited and impatient, the regulations also to prevent any tumult and disturbance were equally numerous, and the penalties heavy.* By one of the statutes, (title xviii. ch. 38.) it was enacted that, if any brother give a challenge to another, he shall be deprived of his habit for ever, without hopes of pardon; and the person accepting it, and all those aiding as seconds, &c., were under the same penalties. Under the mastership of Anthony de Paul, a general chapter was held in 1631, when the old statutes against duelling were revived and confirmed.

Henry's abjuration of the Protestant heresy was insufficient to compose the minds of his subjects, and it was not till he had received absolution from the Pope that he was fairly and quietly seated on the throne. On the sincerity of

* In the second vol. of the English folio edition of Vertot, is a translation of the old and the new statutes of the Order, translated from the edition of Borgoforte, 1676. In M. Boisgein's History of Malta, a selection only is made from them.

his conversion, we shall quote a passage from the English translation of Sully's Memoirs. (Vol. i. p. 252.)

"I should betray the cause of truth, if I suffered it to be even suspected that policy, the threats of the Catholics, the fatigue of labour, the desire of rest, and of freeing himself from the tyranny of foreigners, or even the good of the people, though highly laudable in itself, had entirely influenced the King's resolution. As far as I am able to judge of the heart of this Prince, which I believe I know better than any other person, it was indeed these considerations that first hinted to him the necessity of his conversion; and I confess that I myself suggested no others to him, fully persuaded, as I have always been, although a Calvinist, from what I have gathered from the most learned of the Protestant clergy, that God is no less honored in the Catholic than in the Protestant church. But at length the King was fully convinced that the Catholic faith was the securest. That native candour and sincerity, which I always observed in this Prince, persuade me, that he would not have been able, during all the remainder of his life, to carry on such a fallacy."

The act of abjuration took place in 1593. Sully declines to give any account of the ceremony, because "the Catholic historians have been so prolix upon the subject." He likewise absented himself from it: "but," says he, "I kept myself retired as one who had no interest in the *show* that was preparing." At a subsequent period, Henry was anxious to obtain the abjuration of his faithful and conscientious minister; and he offered his own legitimized daughter, Catherine de Vendome, in marriage to Sully's son, with a very large dower, and various employments, provided that both the father and his son would embrace the Catholic faith.

"Sire," answered the Duke, "your Majesty intends me more honour than I merit or desire. You are master of my son's establishment; I can decide nothing for him. The ripe years he has now attained enable him to make every necessary reflection as regards the choice of a religion. With respect to myself, I should be in despair could I think of increasing my honours, my dignity, and my wealth, at the expense of my conscience. I feel that an internal conviction alone would prompt me, without the incentives of ambition, avarice, or vanity. Did I conduct myself otherwise, I should place it in your Majesty's power to suspect the integrity of my heart, and I should betray my faith to my Maker."—"Wherefore," said Henry, with cordiality, "should I not confide in you, as in such case you would merely act as I have done? I again intreat you to accede to my wishes; reflect well, I give you a month to consider; do not fear that I shall act contrary to my promise."—"I entertain no doubts, Sire," returned the Duke, "as to the inviolability of your assurances. I desire nothing so much as to content you; nor will I ever fail, so long as it shall be in my power to acquiesce. I promise to think most seriously on
your

your Majesty's propositions; and I trust that I shall uniformly give you satisfaction, although I may not perhaps do it in the manner you imagine."

Henry reigned twenty-two years in the hearts of his subjects. He was a patron of literature, encouraged the fine arts, and had imbibed from his minister sounder notions on the freedom of commerce than suited the times in which he lived. Without being much of a financier, as far as he himself was regarded, he saw the necessity of repressing the wanton expenditure in which those of his court were accustomed to revel at the public cost. In a letter to Sully in 1596, he says, "I am very near my enemies, and hardly a horse to carry me into battle, nor a complete suit of armour to put on; my shirts are all ragged, my doublets out at elbow, my kettle is seldom on the fire; and these two last days, I have been obliged to dine where I could, for my purveyors have informed me that they have not wherewithal to furnish my table." In this letter he deplores the monstrous abuses which existed, less on his own account than on that of his people, and proposes the scheme of assembling the states of the kingdom to consider a remedy for these evils. (Memoirs, vol. ii. p. 77.) As, however, he was inordinately addicted to women, the love which he entertained for his people did not prevent him from lavishing on his mistresses, and their bastards, enormous sums of money taken out of the pockets of his subjects; and all his chivalrous notions of honor, or fidelity in friendship, vanished when a favorite mistress interfered. He could play the tyrant *then* without scruple.

Assassination was so common at the period of which we speak, that even this Prince, benevolent and beloved as he was, might well stand in dread of it; and, in the course of his reign, two or three unsuccessful attempts had been made against his life. Ravallac succeeded, but without the good fortune, which attended Clement the assassin of his predecessor Henry III., of being himself killed on the spot. It appears from Sully that the King had the strongest apprehensions that he should never join his army, which, after a long peace, he had now assembled on some foolish anger about the flight of the Prince de Condé, against the advice of that wise minister. These presentiments were of the most melancholy description, and had been impressed on him by a number of prodigies, predictions, and astrological denunciations. On the day after the coronation of his vixen of a wife, Mary de Medicis, he ordered his carriage to go to the arsenal, in order to pay a visit to Sully, who was unwell; and when Vitry, the captain of the guards, made his appearance,

pearance, the King said, "I neither require you nor your guards; for these forty years past I have almost uniformly been the captain of my own guards; I will not have any one to surround my carriage." Ravallac had stopped up the end of one of the streets with two loaded waggons; and, while the attention of the pages, &c. was engaged in clearing away the obstruction, the assassin placed his foot on a spoke of one of the hind wheels on the side where the King sat, and, supporting himself on the door of the carriage with one hand, he stabbed Henry to the heart with a knife which he held in the other. Such was the death of the greatest and best king that ever sat on the throne of France.

We have observed three chapters in the volumes before us; chap. xi. xiv. and xvi., of which we do not find any trace in *Madame Genlis*. They are exclusively confined to an account of the amours of Henry, and anecdotes of his mistresses. In a book intitled *Memoirs of Henry and his Court*, it may be deemed requisite to say something about these matters: but *Madame Genlis* probably considered that a detailed narrative of his personal intrigues with wanton women must be indelicate, was not necessary to support the truth of his story, and was derogatory from its dignity. A great portion of this narrative might indeed have been spared.

If the writer of these volumes had openly given them to the public in their true character, we should have said that the work was very respectably executed, for the translation is in general free and correct: but when we see him quoting as his authorities, with great pomp and parade of industry, the old historians, Sully, Anquetil, De Thou, Du Plessis, Mor-nay, and twenty others, besides French manuscripts, memoirs, chronicles, journals, &c. &c., yet omitting to mention, except on four or five occasions, the author from whom he has translated nine-tenths of his work, and all that is most worth reading in it, it is our duty to expose such ungenerous and unpardonable conduct.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR NOVEMBER, 1824.

POETRY.

Art. 11. *Hastings; a Rural Descriptive Poem: with Historical and Explanatory Notes.* By Thomas Robert Reed. 12mo. pp. 61. Printed for the Author, at Hastings. 1824.

However curious or valuable to the tourist, and the casual visitor of our coast, the historical facts and incidents attached to this

this little volume may be esteemed, it certainly cannot be recommended on the score of its poetical merits. Perhaps, had it been more judiciously intitled a descriptive Guide to the place, it might have answered the object in view: waiving all invocation to the Muse, or the victory of William the Conqueror, "themes of such high emprise;" and simply taking a view of the town, its antiquities, the ruins of the castle, and the surrounding spots most worthy of the notice of visitors. In this form it might have been made a pleasant pocket-companion; and, indeed, with the exception of rhyme, it may be considered in its present shape as sufficiently prosaic in all its incidents and descriptions to satisfy the most inveterate lovers of honest prose. In truth, we may pronounce it to be occasionally so excellent in this qualification, as to become really amusing. We give, for instance, — quite too ludicrous a specimen to be omitted, — the following account of the place:

' An inundation of old Ocean's wave,
Gave to the former town a watery grave;
The present is a new town: here and there
Some trace is found where such and such things were;
And many an anecdote of days of old,
A native names his grandsire's grandsire told,
Such to affirm as how he had heard say
As how the former town was washed away;
He wasn't sure; — but tells you, if 'twas so,
It must have been a good many years ago.'

Art. 12. *The Seven Laras, Miscellaneous Poems, and Translations*, of Izaak Marlowe. * 12mo. pp. 172. 3s. 6d. Boards. Simpkin and Marshall. 1824.

We have here some very poetical but very amatory effusions, dedicated to the grave Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh; whether with or without his sanction, we cannot say: but certainly it appears somewhat incongruous, and to us the more so as we have lately met with another poem, of a really grave and serious cast, depicting all the horrors of warfare, with equal whimsicality dedicated to the witty and facetious Mr. Moore. It is, perhaps, a pity that the two authors were not aware of each other's intention; in which case they might have arranged a more judicious choice of patrons, and rendered their respective dedications in every sense more appropriate, by hurling the heavy argument of war at the head of the Scotch Professor, and laying the tender love-ditties at the feet of our British Anacreon. Such at least is the character of most of the concluding pieces in the present series, and 'The Seven Laras' will be found richly imbedded with the same attractive metal.

If we except, however, a little too much richness and freedom of description, even to a sense of cloying, the poem of 'The

* This seems to be another instance of the prevailing ridiculous fashion of writers assuming pseudonymous appellations.

Seven Laras' may be characterized as very respectable in point of talent. It belongs to the department of romantic epics, for the innumerable recent specimens of which we are indebted to the genius of a late noble poet : but none of his imitators can be said to have approached him ; and very few to have discovered any merit, certainly not superior to that of the present writer. We might select many passages that display much of the boldness and brilliancy of eastern imagery and fiction. Next to that of the Cid, the story would appear to be one of the most popular in Spanish romance ; and it is here treated in as poetical a manner as most of the modern versions of national fictions that we remember to have seen. We can afford only a single extract ; the picture of a slighted Moorish maid, whose love, converted into grief and rage, is thus forcibly told :

- ' Back on the couch she sunk, her bosom glowing,
 Like clouds of night her dark hair o'er it flowing,
 While on her face her slender hand was pressed,
 And struggling sighs convulsed her heaving breast.
 — But soon she rose, and from her face,
 As she withdrew her hand, gone was each trace
 Of love and shame, — for that fair brow,
 Serene and pure as winter's snow ;
 Those wanton lips, but made for bliss,
 To pour the sigh, to yield the kiss ;
 That cheek, so beautiful to the sight,
 So sweetly dimpling in delight ;
 — They, all so bright, so kind but late,
 Now only told of deadly hate ;
 While that soft eye, so free from sin,
 So kindly warm, you might have sworn
 Some bounteous angel dwelt within, —
 Now only glanced with hate and scorn !
 Whilst in her bosom rage sat there,
 And passion of distracted air,
 And dark revenge of sullen mood,
 That prompts the hand to deeds of blood.
- ' At length she spoke, — but harsh her voice,
 No more it bade the soul rejoice ;
 And as the bower her steps forsook,
 She darted where he wondering stood,
 A fierce and withering look,
 That told of hate alone appeased by blood.
 — So there was Lara left, like one
 Who, tost upon the rugged ocean,
 Is cast upon some desert lone,
 Far from the tempest's wild commotion.
- ' But where has she, the fair Zuleikha, gone?
 Driven by rage and frantic passion on,
 She asks the means by which she best
 May still the furies raging in her breast.

Oh!

Oh ! that she knew the dark forbidden spell,
 Taught in the caverns of Domdaniel;
 To which the powers that sit in Eblis' hall
 Arise obedient at the Enchanter's call !
 Oh ! that he were a delicate gazelle,
 Feeding all day by the Oasis' well,
 And she a tigress feasting in his gore,
 Scattering his limbs along the empurpled shore !
 Or that he were a sea-tost mariner,
 And a dark tempest of the ocean she,
 On beetling rocks his wandering barque to bear,
 And sink him shrieking in the merciless sea !

At length she started, — seized her veil of snow,
 And bade her tresses down dishevelled flow,
 Her robes undid, like one in fear and dread,
 From the rude hands of violence who fled.
 Forth thus she hastened where the monarch sat,
 There bending down like one disconsolate,
 Her moony bosom heaving many a sigh,
 The bright tears rolling in her swimming eye ;
 — Such as of old by Nilus' oozy bed,
 The scaly crocodile was wont to shed : —
 She grasped his knees his vengeance to implore,
 By all most dear, — by all the love he bore.'

Art. 13. *Poems and other Writings.* By the late Edward Rushton : to which is added, a Sketch of the Life of the Author. By the Rev. William Shepherd. 12mo. pp. 250. 6s. Boards. Wilson. 1824.

Although the interest attaching to the present publication be of a somewhat miscellaneous character, it is by no means of an unattractive or unimportant kind. The biographical sketch of the author, from the pen of a writer not unknown to the literary world, is very ably and judiciously drawn : — manifesting throughout much good sense and a tone of good feeling, united to that force and clearness of language for which all the productions of Mr. Shepherd are remarkable. We have reason for believing, also, that the portrait of a firm, consistent, and strenuous supporter of freedom, private independence, and unyielding integrity, under circumstances of a most trying nature, is by no means overcharged in the instance of Mr. Rushton. Though deprived of sight by an attack of ophthalmia, owing to his active humanity in attending others, and laboring under the pressure of poverty, he bore his lot with unshrinking fortitude, — struggled for and obtained independence, — gave his family an excellent education, — and won the esteem of all who knew him. Possessing a strong and expansive intellect, he devoted it to a high and honorable pursuit, by joining his voice against the inhuman traffic in slaves, which was formerly the disgrace of his native town of Liverpool, and of which he once had seen enough while in the capacity of mate of a slave-trading ship. That he missed no opportunity which

offered any chance of alleviating their condition, his *Letter to the great Washington*, formerly President of the United States, affords only a solitary instance. It is a remonstrance on the circumstance of the President being himself a slave-holder; and is written in a noble and manly tone;—as Mr. Shepherd observes, ‘more strong than courteous;—more convincing than conciliatory.’ We regret to add that it seems not to have been palatable to the ex-President’s feelings, since he returned it to the writer under a blank cover. Mr. Rushton composed several other essays, one of which appears together with the poems, on the same subject. His language, though not very classical nor much adorned, is always free, nervous, and eloquent; and his arguments, delivered in so bold and impassioned a strain, can scarcely be too strongly recommended at the present moment, when the advocates of slavery employ every weapon of sophistry that self-interest can place at their command.

To the impressive appeal to General Washington is added, ‘An Attempt to prove that Climate, Food, and Manners, are not the Causes of the Dissimilarity of Colour in the Human Species;’ in which the author very ingeniously if not successfully combats the more popular opinion of Buffon, Clarkson, and others, that all varieties of color are accidental,—the effects of climate, and of the sun. He seems to contend, on the other hand, for an original distinction implanted by the hand of Providence, in which our sable brethren have been as bounteously treated as the whites; considering arrogance of superiority on this point to be as idle and imaginary as on others of a mental and intellectual character.

Of Mr. R.’s poems we spoke on their first appearance, vol. I. N. S. p. 95., in terms which we see no occasion to alter. We gave them credit for power, pathos, and descriptive merit, while we pointed out their want of polish and classical taste; and, though ignorant of the writer’s situation in life, we ascribed the nature and tendency of many of his compositions to the probability of his having been placed in circumstances which we now find had really been his lot. We cannot refrain, then, from expressing our gratification at a second impression of a work, which, in addition to the able biographical sketch prefixed, together with a considerable addition of new materials, advocates so many excellent principles, and is throughout imbued with so much good sense and good feeling, devoted to the cause of humanity and truth.

MEDICINE.

Art. 14. *The Art of invigorating and prolonging Life*, by Food, Clothes, Air, Exercise, Wine, Sleep, &c.; and Peptic Precepts, pointing out agreeable and effectual Methods to prevent and relieve Indigestion, and to regulate and strengthen the Action of the Stomach and Bowels.—To which is added, the Pleasure of making a Will. By the Author of “*The Cook’s Oracle*,” &c. 12mo. pp. 208. 7s. Boards. Hurst and Co.

When the heyday of life is passed, and when we feel that the wanted vigor and elasticity of our frames begin to relax, an

increasing attention to the preservation of health and the lengthening of our sojourn here steals gradually on us. Most men verging towards forty, and many even earlier, become conscious of such feelings: but there are some, without doubt, whose minds, being strongly directed towards objects of worldly ambition or literary pursuit, are as little occupied at that age with the study of health as they were in their youth. Attention to these subjects, indeed, is apt to give origin to uneasy and anxious feelings, and even to lay the foundation of hypochondriacal complaints; and it is therefore of great importance that their consideration should be taken up in as lively and amusing a style as the subject will admit.

The author of the little volume before us appears to have been strongly impressed with this opinion, and has accordingly addressed himself in this pleasing manner to such as would enjoy health and long life, without abandoning a moderate share of the comforts and even luxuries of civilized society. He has contrived to deliver a code of the most judicious and approved instructions for the management of health, mingled with the counsels of the cautious *bon-vivant*; and seasoned with a lively and playful humor, which will beguile the reader of all gloomy thoughts that the subject of preserving health and life might under other circumstances awaken.

Of the value of sleep, "nature's sweet restorer," Dr. Kitchiner speaks in these terms:

' *The debilitated* require much more rest than the robust:—nothing is so restorative to the nerves, as sound and uninterrupted sleep, which is the chief source of both bodily and mental strength.

' *The studious* need a full portion of sleep, — which seems to be as necessary nutriment to the brain as food is to the stomach.

' Our strength and spirits are infinitely more exhausted by the exercise of our mental, than by the labour of our corporeal faculties: — let any person try the effect of *intense application* for a few hours, — he will soon find how much his body is fatigued thereby, although he has not stirred from the chair he sat on.

' Those who are candidates for health must be as circumspect in the task they set their mind, as in the exercise they give to their body:

' Dr. Armstrong, the poet of health, observes,

' " 'Tis the great art of life to manage well
The restless mind."

' The grand secret seems to be, to contrive that the exercise of the body, and that of the mind, may serve as relaxations to each other.

' Over exertion, or anxiety of mind, disturbs digestion infinitely more than any fatigue of body; — the brain demands a much more abundant supply of the animal spirits, than is required for the excitement of mere legs and arms.

' " 'Tis the sword that wears out the scabbard."

‘Of the two ways of fertilizing the brain, — by sleep, or by spirituous stimulus, — (for some write best in the morning, others when wound up with wine, after dinner or supper,) the former is much less expensive, — and less injurious to the constitution than either Port, or brandy, whose aid it is said that some of our best authors have been indebted to, for their most brilliant productions.

‘Calling one day on a literary friend, we found him reclining on a sofa. — On expressing our concern to find him indisposed, he said, “No, I was only *hatching* : — I have been writing till I was quite tired ; — my paper must go to press to-day, — so I was taking my usual restorative, — a *nap*, — which if it only lasts five minutes, so refreshes my mind, that my pen goes to work again spontaneously.”

‘Is it not better *economy of time* to go to sleep for half an hour, than to go on noodling all day in a nerveless and semi-superannuated state, — if not asleep, certainly not effectively awake, — for any purpose requiring the energy of either the body, or the mind?

“*A forty winks nap*,” in an horizontal posture, is the best preparative for any extraordinary exertion of either.’

The manifold disturbances of our morning-slumbers are feelingly deplored in the following admirable passage :

‘Among the most distressing miseries of this “*elysium of bricks and mortar*,” (London,) may be reckoned how rarely we enjoy “the sweets of a slumber unbroke.”

‘Sound passes through the thin party-walls of modern houses, (*which of the first rate, at the fire-place, are only four inches in thickness*.) with most unfortunate facility; this is really an evil of the first magnitude.

‘If you are so unlucky as to have for next door neighbours fashionable folks who turn night into day, or such as delight in the sublime economy of cinder-saving, or cob-web catching, it is in vain to seek repose, before the former has indulged in the evening’s recreation of raking out the fire, and has played with the poker till it has made all the red coals black ; — or, after *Mohidusta*, the tidy one, has awoke the morn with “the broom, the bonny, bonny broom.”

‘A determined dust-hunter, or cinder-saver, murders its neighbour’s sleep with as little mercy as Macbeth destroyed Duncan’s, and morning and evening bangs doors, slams up and down the sashes, and rattles window-shutters, till the “earth trembles, and air is aghast !”

‘If all attempts to conciliate a savage who is in this fancy are labour in vain, — and the arrangement of its fire is equally the occupation of the morning, and the amusement of the evening; the preservation of a cinder and the destruction of a cobweb, the main business of its existence : — the best advice we can give you, gentle reader, — is to send it this little book, — and beseech it to place the following pages opposite to its optic nerves some morning, — after you have diverted it from sleep every half hour during the preceding night.

‘ Counsellor Scribblefast, a special pleader, who lived on a ground-floor in the Temple, — about the time that Sergeant Ponder, who dwelt on the first floor, retired to rest, began to practise his violoncello, “ *And his loud voice in thunder spoke.*” — The student above, by way of giving him a gentle hint, struck up, “ *Gently strike the warbling Lyre,*” and Will. Harmony’s favourite hornpipes of “ *Don’t Ye,*” and “ *Pray be Quiet ;*” however, the *dolce* and *pianissimo* of poor Ponder produced no diminution of the *prestissimo* and *fortissimo* of the indefatigable Scribblefast.

‘ Ponder prayed “silence in the court,” and complained in most pathetic terms, — but, alas ! his “ *lowly suit and plaintive ditty*” made not the least impression on him who was beneath him. — He at length procured a set of skettles, and as soon as his musical neighbour had done fiddling, he began *con strepito*, and bowled away merrily till the morning dawned. — The enraged musician did not wait long after daylight, to put in his plea against such proceedings, and received in reply, that such exercise had been ordered by a physician, as the properest paregoric, after being disturbed by the thorough bass of the big fiddle below. — This soon convinced the tormentor of catgut, who dwelt on the ground-floor, that he could not annoy his superior with impunity, and produced silence on both sides.

‘ People are very unwisely inconsiderate how much it is their own interest to attend to the comforts of their neighbours, for which we have a Divine command, — “to love our neighbour as ourself.” — “ *Sic utere tuo, ut alienum non laedas,*” is the maxim of our English law. Interrupting one’s sleep is as prejudicial to health as any of the nuisances Blackstone enumerates as actionable.

‘ The majority of the *dogs*, — *parrots*, — *piano-fortes*, &c. in this metropolis, are *actionable nuisances* ! ! !

The instructions of the author of *Peptic Precepts* are not directed to the vigorous and healthy alone, but to the weak and valetudinarian also ; and the sound judgment which he has shewn in the treatment of this part of his subject is certainly well deserving of praise.

‘ The infirm stomachs of invalids require a little indulgence ; — like other bad instruments, they often want oiling, and screwing, and winding up and adjusting with the utmost care, to keep them in tolerable order ; — and will receive the most salutary stimulus, from now and then making a full meal of a favourite dish. This is not a singular notion of my own, though it may not exactly agree with the fastidious fancy of *Dr. Sangrado’s* disciples, — that starvation and phlebotomy are sovereign remedies for all disorders.

‘ Those philanthropic physicians, Dr. Diet, — Dr. Quiet, — and Dr. Merryman, — hold the same doctrine as the author of “ *The Cook’s Oracle,*” to whose culinary skill we have been so repeatedly indebted in the composition of this work.

‘ As excessive eating and drinking is certainly the most frequent cause of the disorders of the rich, so privation is the

common source of complaints among the poor; — the cause of the one is the cure of the other; — but where one of the latter dies of want, how many thousands of the former are destroyed by indigestion!

‘ If strong spices and savoury herbs excite appetite, they (in an increased ratio) accelerate the action of the bowels, and hurry the food through the alimentary canal, too rapidly to allow the absorbents to do their work properly.

‘ *Salt* is “*aliorum condimentorum, condimentum*,” and the most salubrious and easily obtainable relish which nature has given us to give sapidity to other substances; and has this advantage over all other sources, that if taken to excess, it carries its remedy with it in its aperient quality.

‘ We suspect that most mischief is done by the immoderate and constant use of the *common condiments*. — We have seen some puritanical folks, who are for ever boasting that *they never touch made dishes, &c.* (one would suppose they had the tongue of *Pitylus*), so be-devil every morsel they put into their mouth with pepper and mustard, that they made their common food ten times more *piquante* than the burn-gullet *bonne bouche* of an eastern nabob, or a *broiled devil*, enveloped in “*veritable sauce d’enfer*.”

Although it must be allowed that the *Peptic Precepts* admit of greater indulgence at the festive board than we think is altogether conducive to sound health, they are without doubt the best general directions that can be given to those who are not disposed to refuse compliance with the customs of society; and who wish to enjoy, to a certain extent, the pleasures of the table. Altogether, the perusal of this little volume has been a source of much entertainment and some instruction to us; and we feel pleasure in recommending it to others, more particularly to single gentlemen who have already passed the meridian of life.

HISTORY and BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 15. *A Brief Summary of Ancient History, arranged in Periods.* Designed principally for the Use of Young Persons; and as a Companion to “*A Compendious Chart of Ancient History and Biography*,” &c. By Mrs. John Hurford. 12mo. 3s. Boards; and the Chart, 4to. 8s. 6d. Boards. Colored. Longman and Co.

This Chart, which is constructed with great ingenuity and executed very neatly, exhibits a connected view of the rise, progress, extent, and duration of the principal empires of antiquity, together with the most remarkable events and the most prominent characters that distinguished the several periods. Most of the historical works put into the hands of young persons present detached histories of the several empires in review, but fail to impress on their memories the order of contemporary events. The present Chart is not so comprehensive as that of Dr. Priestley, particularly in the biographical part, but in some measure combines the advantages of both his Charts, the Biographical and the Historical; and it exhibits, moreover, a chronological chain of remarkable

remarkable events.—The small volume which accompanies the Chart will be found extremely useful in explaining it.

Art. 16. *Self-Advancement*; or, extraordinary Transitions from Obscurity to Greatness, exemplified in the Lives and History of the Emperor Basil, Rienzi the Tribune, Alexander V., Cardinal Ximenes, Hadrian VI., Cardinal Wolsey, Adrian IV., Thomas Lord Cromwell, Sixtus V., Masaniello, Cardinal Alberoni, Doctor Franklin, King of Sweden (Bernadotte). Designed as an Object of laudable Emulation for the youthful Mind. By the Author of "Practical Wisdom," &c. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Whittakers.

No department in literature is more attractive to persons of all ages than biography: nor is any more instructive. The title-page of this little volume gives the names of thirteen individuals, whose original lot seemed cast in obscurity, but who, by the force of their own genius aided by perseverance and good conduct, afterward attained and dignified the highest situations in society. Perhaps, however, the lives of kings, and cardinals, and prime ministers, are not the very best which might have been selected as useful examples of transition from a low to a high station: for the eminence which they attained is like that of the gilded vane on a cathedral spire. It is a dizzy height which few can reach, and luckily few wish to reach. We should have welcomed a less compressed account of Dr. Franklin, whose history will be a more efficacious excitement to useful industry than that of all the other heroes. The lives of such men as Arkwright, Brindley, Watt, &c., persons who by the force of intellect have raised themselves into a more accessible station in life than Popes and Emperors, would be read with equal interest and greater advantage. Heriot's "Struggles through Life," a narrative of his own perseverance and success in buffeting against the strong tide of adversity, published by that gentleman some years ago, is a good work to be put into the hands of young people; and the renowned history of Whittington and his Cat has not been without its effect. To become a Lord Mayor of London is not so hopeless an object of ambition as to become a monarch; and, while the splendor of the one is as alluring to the mass of mankind as that of the other, the means of attaining that station are in general as much more virtuous as they are more within reach.

Art. 17. *Biography of celebrated Roman Characters*; with numerous Anecdotes illustrative of their Lives and Actions. Designed for the Use of Young Persons, and embellished with Engravings of Portraits and Historical Subjects. By the Rev. W. Bingley, M.A. F.L.S. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Harvey and Darton. 1824.

We are sorry to say that this is the posthumous production of an author to whom we are indebted for many very useful and valuable works, particularly the "Animal Biography," without which no juvenile library can be considered as complete. The volume before us begins with the life of Numa, and ends with that of Julius Cæsar,

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comprizing all the most celebrated warriors and statesmen between the two periods.—If history be deemed a desirable study for youth, we may recommend parents and preceptors to place this volume in the hands of their children and pupils, since they may gain from the perusal of it not only a love of history but a love of virtue. The bare recital of one fact after another, which hurries the mind too much to allow it time for the reflection that is necessary if a moral is to be gleaned from it, is here avoided; and a proper discrimination is made between those actions that are worthy of praise, and those circumstances that are necessary to be told as matters of fact.—A brief account of Mr. Bingley's life and writings is prefixed.

NOVEL.

Art. 18. *Trials; a Tale.* By the Author of "The Favourite of Nature," &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1*l.* 1*s.* Boards. Whittakers. 1824.

It is with regret that we have noticed the diminished merit of each succeeding work from the pen of the lady (for so we understand the writer to be) to whom we owe these volumes. "*The Favourite of Nature*" was *very good*; and "*Osmond*" was *good*; but the *Tale* before us, we are afraid, is only *tolerable*.—It is not impossible that the fair writer may have taken fright at the observations of some highly decorous persons, (we have heard such,) who imagine that the love-scenes in her former productions were rather too highly colored; and, in order to prevent such objections for the future, she may have excluded all such passionate representations from the present volumes. It was, however, in the truth and beauty of those scenes that the merit of her former publications chiefly consisted; and in quitting the empire of the passions, she has abandoned her most valuable dominions.—To escape, we presume, the dangerous descriptions of a long courtship, she has now married her heroine very early in the tale; a practice which we have been sorry to observe is becoming very prevalent among our modern novelists. We think that we could frame a tolerably conclusive argument against the morality of such a proceeding: but, waiving that point, we contend that it is destructive to the interest of a novel. It is to commence with the catastrophe; for, when the heroine is married, the tale is told. To most novel-fanciers, consequently, the history of a married couple is dull; and to increase that dullness, the husband in the present tale runs deeply into debt. The '*Trials*,' therefore, which the heroine has to sustain, are those which, though in themselves most difficult to bear, are yet calculated to excite but little interest in the mind of the generality of readers. Duns and domestic difficulties annoy them, but do not rouse their sympathies perhaps so much as they ought. However, if these volumes are rather deficient in interest, there is no want of serious exhortation in them; and in the first we are really presented with several pages of a sermon.

MISCEL-

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 19. *An Essay on the Objects of Taste.* 12mo. pp. 216, 5s. Boards. Glasgow, Chalmers and Co.; London, Whitakers.

The result of the author's reflections in this essay may be shortly expressed in his own words: 'Fitness, suitableness, utility, form the inherent quality of beauty; and the accidental relation to our former experience of pleasure and emotion is the cause of our perception of beauty.' A theory, in which beauty is considered as something essential and inherent in the object, at the same time that the perception of it is termed an 'accidental relation,' is at least somewhat obscure. In other parts of the volume, we find that the writer considers whatever is useful to be, strictly speaking, beautiful: but that any thing which excites emotions of pleasure from particular suggestions is more properly picturesque than beautiful. The sublime he derives from the perception of power; which he subdivides into the terrific and the beneficent. — The objections to any attempt to resolve beauty into utility are well stated by Burke in his "Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful," and do not seem to have met from the present author with the attention which they deserve.

It appears to us that a fondness for simplifying, and reducing all phenomena to a single principle, has done much injury in inquiries respecting the subject of taste. Some colors seem primarily pleasing to the sight, perhaps, as exciting to a moderate action; and this particular branch of the subject is well considered in a little treatise, ("The Theory of Agreeable Sensations,") the merit of which is not equalled by its celebrity. So smoothness is agreeable to the touch, either from a similar cause, or, as Dr. Darwin has ingeniously endeavored to shew, from some of the associated impressions arising in infancy. Connected with these pleasures of light, color, and of smooth surface, seems to be the pleasure arising from the perception of easy and graceful motion. The theory of utility will be searched in vain for any reason to account for the charm in the sight of a swan gliding along a stream; and, indeed, according to that theory, the sight of a plumb-pudding ought to be much more fascinating than that of a balloon arising from the earth. In the feeling of sublimity, there is always a yearning of the soul to extend its sphere, and to rise above the coil of mortality:—it rouses itself, and stirs up to sympathize with the mighty energies of nature. The principle of utility is quite remote from all the impulses of the occasion. — We need not produce a more conclusive argument against the present author's positions than his own statement. After having extracted several very fine passages from Scripture, he thus proceeds:

'Even after such examples of the sublime, we cannot withhold another, in a wish expressed by our late venerable sovereign, — "I hope to see every one of my subjects able to read his own Bible." Here we find the highest species of sublimity (which is moral sublimity) in full exhibition.

' The

' The king of the greatest nation upon earth having the head to conceive, and the heart to feel and desire, the greatest good for his people. The speech of no other monarch has ever so exquisitely combined the sublime power of wisdom and virtue.'

The good sense and good feeling of our late sovereign's speech were never, surely, more unfortunately represented than here, where it is put forwards as a model of sublimity. The sublime is a matter of the imagination, and not grounded in reasonings on utility. — We quote with very different feelings the following passages, where the sentiments described do not depend on the author's particular theory; and they are by much the happiest specimens of composition in the volume.

' Sect. iv. — *A Scene of Nature exhibiting the Sublime, in Power that occasions Dread and Awe.*

' In approaching the Falls of Niagara, it is common to avert the eyes from that direction in which the tremendous noise tells you that the Falls may be expected, — thus studiously augmenting the effect of a scene, the grandeur of which it is naturally supposed the same spectator is not likely again to see equalled. Yet, with all this expectation full upon them, I have never heard of any one whose imagination had gone beyond what was presented to their sight. The prodigious mass of waters, which with such tremendous force shoot forth, — dashing, foaming, and tumbling over an immense breadth of rock, and down a precipice of great depth, — appear not only equal to overwhelm man, but worlds; and the awe-stricken spectators, feeling their own nothingness, are only able to enjoy the contemplation of its sublimity from the knowledge, that there is a Power even greater than the Falls of Niagara; and the rainbow's* beauteous arch seems sent to remind them that that power has said, Hitherto shalt thou come, and no farther.

' Sect. v. — *A Scene of Nature exhibiting the Sublime, in Power that occasions Admiration and Love.*

' To exemplify the milder species of the sublime, we know no scene more suited than that from Mount Etna. The mountain must be ascended during the night, when it is intended to enjoy the magnificent view of the great luminary of day, gradually pouring light and life upon this splendid scene. This high altitude has different effects, all in themselves elevating, and their novelty renders them still more delightful. The tenuity of the air extends the vision to a degree quite wonderful to those unaccustomed to great elevations, and the refracting power of the atmosphere seems to shift and approximate islands and continents at pleasure. Thus, not only does the spectator witness an extent of beauty beyond what he supposed his bodily organs could grasp; but these variously grouped as by the power of enchantment: —

' * It is almost superfluous to say, that the rainbow here alluded to, is that produced by the refraction of the sun's rays, in passing through the spray which rises from a waterfall.'

around

around him he sees craters, some of which recently vomited flames and lava, but which serve by contrast to embellish others, now become the quiet scenes of the most perfect sylvan beauty. He sees below him Sicily, with its city-clad hills stretched out like a map. He beholds the unruffled surface of the Mediterranean studded with islands, and encircled by promontories of every shape and size. He sees nearly the whole of the Lipari isles, the coast of Calabria, and even as far as Malta. All seems dropped fresh from the hand of Omnipotence in rich luxuriance.

‘Viewing such a scene of splendour from this high elevation, the mind itself seems freed from all the petty cares and passions of this world, and the heart is lifted from all that is created, in longing aspirations to approach still nearer its Creator.’

The word ‘Sarcenic’ for Saracenic, in pages. 108 and 109.; ‘Apollo Belvédère,’ page 127.; ‘till *their* shall be in their hearts,’ page 205.; shew a careless revision of this work.

Art. 20. *Practical Logic*; or, Hints to young Theme Writers, for the Purpose of leading them to think and reason with Accuracy. By B. H. Smart, Author of the “Theory and Practice of Elocution,” &c. 12mo. pp. 114. 3s. 6d. Boards. Whittakers.

This is an useful little volume, and may be employed with advantage in the earlier stages of education. Subjoined will be found some questions for the examination of the pupil, adapted to the course of instruction pursued in the work; and a few general rules for punctuation.

Art. 21. *A Diagram, illustrative of the Formation of the Human Character*, suggested by Mr. Owen’s Developement of a New View of Society. Large 8vo. pp. 16. 2s. Wheatly and Adlard. 1824.

We much doubt whether this attempt to elucidate Mr. Owen’s metaphysics by means of a diagram will be deemed very successful. Here is a series of six concentric circles, variously colored, denoting the different classes of objects and circumstances by which man is surrounded and influenced from birth to death; the color of the centre, which represents the individual himself, being a compound of all the other colors. The first, or inner circle, exhibits the influence of circumstances during childhood, such as the conduct of parents, nurses, servants, &c.; the second circle describes the influence of scholastic discipline, embracing the character, &c. of the boy’s tutor and his school-fellows; the third denotes religion; the fourth, the class of society in which the individual moves, the high, the middle, or the low; the fifth manifests the influence of his trade or profession; and the sixth, or exterior circle, represents the institutions of the country, and especially the laws of property. If the colors in these circles denote the best system of education, religion, and laws, which can exist, the compound color will likewise shew a character of corresponding perfection: but if the color of one circle only be altered, it will in some degree vary that of the central

central color, and the character will be less perfect. The inference to be drawn from the Diagram is that the cause of every crime is to be found in one or more of the classes of circumstances described by the circles; and that those causes may be removed by society, and others substituted for them of a more favorable nature.

That man is subject to the combined influence of physical and moral circumstances is an undisputed truth: but legislators and moralists have not always paid sufficient attention to another truth, equally undeniable, that man himself creates most of those circumstances from which the character of his species is afterward derived. All those who have visited Mr. Owen's establishment at Lanark concur in representing the experiment, which he has there tried, of producing a large portion of happiness among the lower classes of society with the least possible alloy, to be eminently successful: but whether the extension of such a system, on a scale of national magnitude, be feasible, has been doubted by many political economists who have given their attention to the subject. Mr. Owen, who is one among the most benevolent of men, is a zealot and an enthusiast: but what deed of difficulty and magnitude has ever been accomplished without zeal and enthusiasm? Extinguish not the flame, therefore: for with him it burns to enlighten, to warm, and to cherish his fellow-creatures, not to destroy and consume them.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We really do not see that our fair friend *M*—— had reason to speak so strongly as she does in her letter. Certainly, we did not mean to express ourselves with severity, and we now think that no reader will so interpret the few animadversions which we passed on her style.

It was our intention to examine in the present Number the work mentioned by *X. Y.*, but we have been obliged to postpone the article.

R. S. T. is quite right, and we will take care of the matter about which he is commendably anxious.

✪ We again recommend to the notice of our readers the lately published GENERAL INDEX to the *New Series* of the *Monthly Review*, in two large vols. 8vo.; as not only a most convenient but a necessary guide to that extensive portion of our work, and to the *History of Literature* for the period which it includes.



THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For DECEMBER, 1824.

ART. I. *Travels in Brazil*, in the Years 1817, 1818, 1819, and 1820. Undertaken by Command of His Majesty the King of Bavaria. By Dr. Joh. Bapt. Von Spix, and Dr. C. F. Phil. Von Martius, Knights of the Royal Bavarian Order of Civil Merit, and Members of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Munich, &c. &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1824.

INDEPENDENTLY of the multiplied and fruitful resources of South America, the critical position of some of its fairest provinces, and the prospects which they open to mercantile speculation, are peculiarly calculated to rouse the attention of the British public. The folio and the quarto tomes of the Baron de Humboldt convey much learned information on this subject, without by any means exhausting it; and ample gleanings are still in reserve for the patient explorers of particular districts. Brazil alone has already exercised the pens of several interesting and accomplished travellers; and now two erudite and chivalrous doctors have successfully performed a literary and scientific pilgrimage over the same fertile land, and have returned, *per varios casus, per tot discrimina rerum*, laden with the contents of a whole museum. Their mission, although conducted under the auspices of their sovereign, and, which is more surprizing, under those of the house of *Austria*, was of no trivial description: for a greater complication of duties has seldom been imposed on any two individuals.

Dr. Spix, as zoologist, engaged to make the whole animal kingdom the object of his observations and labours. With this view he had to observe the inhabitants, whether aborigines or colonists; to remark the different effects of climate upon them; their physical and intellectual powers, &c.: the external and internal conformation of all the indigenous animals; their habits and instincts, and the geographical limits in which they are found; their migrations: and, lastly, to investigate the fossil-remains of animals, those most authentic records of the past, and most convincing proofs of the gradual development of the creation. Dr. Martius, as botanist, undertook to explore, in its whole extent, the vegetable kingdom of the tropics. Besides the study of the

botanical families peculiar to the country, he was particularly to examine those forms which, by their affinity or identity with those of other countries, lead to conclusions, respecting their original country, and their gradual diffusion over the surface of the globe. He proposed connecting these researches with climatic and geognostic observations; and to this end to extend them to the most insignificant members of the vegetable kingdom, such as mosses, lichens, and fungi. He was likewise to observe the changes which both the native and exotic plants undergo, when exposed to certain external influences; and to investigate the history of the soil, and the method of cultivation there in use. An examination of the internal structure, and of the development of tropical plants, promised interesting solutions of the laws of vegetable life in general, as the observation of any traces that should be discovered of an earlier vegetation, now extinct, might afford materials for the foundation of a geognostic theory. Lastly, he conceived he should promote the object of the mission by an accurate investigation of the Brazilian materia medica, drawn from the vegetable kingdom, as well as of all other vegetable substances, the use of which might be interesting to arts and manufactures, and by carefully indicating the manner in which they are employed in their native country. But besides the observations and researches in the departments peculiar to each professor, in which reciprocal assistance and support were presupposed, they were particularly enjoined to complete, as far as possible, the collections of the academy, by sending specimens of all the natural productions of the several kingdoms, as the best certificate of the observations made.

‘ In addition to these instructions, each particular branch of study at the University had its peculiar claims upon the industry and observation of the travellers. With respect to mineralogy, they were instructed accurately to observe the geognostic relations in which the different formations of the mountain-masses in general stand to each other; their succession, magnitude, thickness, and particularly their dip; and, farther, to examine the hitherto problematical production of gold, of diamonds, and other precious stones, as well as of all the more important fossils. In physics, they were to observe the declination and inclination of the magnetic needle; its daily variation; the phenomena of electricity, according to the several degrees of latitude and longitude; the transparency and colour, the phosphorescence, temperature, and saltiness of the sea in different regions, and at various depths; the temperature of the atmosphere; the phenomenon of the *Fata Morgana*; the mean temperature and the differences of climate in various parts of the continent; the periodical oscillation of the barometer; the different elevations of the ground; the traces of the gradual receding or advancing of the sea, on the coasts; the currents, the local anomalies in the tides; the electricity of the fish, &c. The historical and philosophic-philological classes of the University recommended attention to the different languages, national peculiarities, religious and historical traditions, ancient and

and modern monuments; such as writings, coins, idols, and, in general, whatever might throw light on the state of society, and the history both of the aboriginal and other inhabitants of Brazil, or which concerned the topography and geography of that hitherto so imperfectly known country.

Without too anxiously inquiring into the literal fulfilment of such weighty and diversified engagements, we can feel no hesitation in stating, that the indefatigable exertions of these enlightened and honest travellers have considerably augmented our stock of observation and discovery; and that they have steadfastly and nobly persevered in the prosecution of a design, from which minds of a less vigorous mould would have shrunk. Nor will our readers deem this testimony of their zeal and diligence over-strained, when they are informed that two additional volumes of their narrative are in the press, that the more scientific portions of their journals have appeared in the form of separate treatises, and that all their collections, without a single exception, have been safely deposited in the Brazilian Museum at Munich.

In pursuance of an arrangement concluded at the court of Vienna, the two academicians were destined to accompany a party of *savans* and naturalists in the suite of an Austrian Archduchess, betrothed to the Prince of Brazil; and, in the course of January, 1817, they received directions to proceed to Vienna, and thence to Trieste, where they would embark on board one of the two frigates equipped for the expedition. In the Austrian capital, some time was agreeably occupied in cultivating the acquaintance of several distinguished naturalists, and in making farther preparations for their voyage. On the 5th of March, they took their departure for Trieste, including in their route Grätz, where they paid their respects to Professors Vest and Mohs, Laibach, then the residence of the venerable Baron Von Zoys, and the quicksilver-mines of Idria. When they reached Trieste, on the 10th of March, few of the vernal wild flowers were yet in bloom: but various species of marine plants, fish, birds, *crustacea*, &c., were selected and forwarded to Munich. Some retardation in the movements of the Austrian embassy enabled them to catch a glimpse of Venice and Padua: but, on the appearance of the members of the legation, the two frigates were ordered to proceed to Gibraltar, and there to await the arrival of the Archduchess. They accordingly put to sea on the 10th of April, but were speedily separated in a heavy gale; and one of them, the *Augusta*, was so disabled as to be left behind: but the *Austria*, on board of which Dr. Spix and Dr. Martius had embarked, went into Pola to refit, and

then continued her voyage. The naturalists had thus an opportunity of surveying the interesting environs of Pola, and the fleetz and cavernous lime-stone of Istria. They were struck with the nakedness of both hill and plain, as contrasted with the verdure of more northerly latitudes, low and shadeless shrubs faintly representing the dry pine-forests of Germany: but numerous plantations of olives and laurels, and the transparency and mildness of the sky, imparted a general softness to the scene, while many of the wild flowers were "redolent of spring."

April 21., the frigate again weighed, and shaped her course for Gibraltar: but adverse winds compelled the captain to touch at Malta, which is characteristically described, though in course without much novelty. — On the 30th they made sail, and reached the bay of Gibraltar on the 12th of May. As they approached the ocean, the nocturnal phosphorescence of the sea was observed to increase, and to afford favorable opportunities of investigating its cause.

' The hand, or whatever was wetted with this water, shone, and the vessels, when shaken, were full of luminous particles. The water, when examined the following day, by means of an admirable microscope, made by Utzschneider and Fraunhofer, showed a number of little bodies, sometimes roundish, sometimes oblong, of the size of a poppy seed. Each of them had at one end, or on the top of the head, a small navel-like opening, having from six to nine fine filaments round it, which float within the bladder, and with which the little animal seems to attach itself to other bodies, and to take its nourishment. In the inside of these bladders we sometimes saw many other small darker points crowded together on one side, or here and there some larger ones, which might be either remains of smaller animals which they had swallowed, or the spawn. These globular animalculæ, which are entirely of the nature of medusæ, and are mentioned by Peron and Lechenault, under the name of *Arethusa pelagica*, and by Savigny under that of *Noctiluca miliaris*, swim in greater or less numbers in the seawater taken up at night, and appear to the naked eye, in the sunshine, like little drops of grease. If the water is not changed, or the examination continues too long, they do not remain in the middle of the glass, but fall dead to the bottom. It is remarkable that these globular animalculæ, when they come near together, involuntarily attract each other, and form whole groups, an effect resembling the magnetic phenomena of inanimate substances. We observed a similar phenomenon on a large scale, in the daytime, here as well as on the ocean. Whole masses of these animals swam on the surface of the water in long yellowish brown stripes, and looked like a stream covered with saw-dust. This, however, is never seen except when the sky is covered with thick clouds, which darken the sea. These marine infusoria appear to avoid the light of the sun, and to sink in the daytime to the bottom, to

return to the surface as soon as darkness sets in; at least they were not to be found in the water which was taken up in the day-time, but only in that which we took up at night. The mode of life and the social instinct which the above-mentioned little arethuseæ have in common with the other zoophytes, salpæ, &c., may perhaps be the cause that they are met with very frequently in some parts of the sea, and in others very rarely, or not at all. In the bay of Gibraltar they were so abundant, that if we only dipped a hand in the water, a furrow of light was immediately seen, and the hand when taken out shone in innumerable points. All these facts seem therefore to prove that the phosphorescence of the sea is principally to be attributed to animals. The large fiery balls, often a foot in diameter, which rise singly above the water, or swim about in it, are probably larger mollusca or melusæ, or perhaps bladders in the water, illumined by the phosphoric light of these animals. But, besides this insulated or sparkling phosphorescence, there is another, the natural characteristics of which seem not to have been yet sufficiently distinguished. At some distance from the ship, wherever two waves strike together or dash over each other, a shallow bluish streak of light, like the reflection of the lightning on the water, is seen. This light differs from that of the globular animalculæ in not consisting of single sparks or dazzling masses of light, of a bright yellow colour, but being rather equally diffused, and resembling the faint light that proceeds from burning spirits of wine. We do not pretend at present to decide on the nature of this faint light. It might be considered either as the combined reflection of the sparks of light produced by the animalculæ, or as the process of restoring the balance of electricity between the single waves, or the sea and the atmosphere, as it appears only on the surface of the clashing and breaking waves. We are almost inclined to adopt the latter opinion, especially when we consider the saltiness of the sea-water, which increases its electricity, and the corrupt substances in it, by which it is, as it were, rendered more organic and animalised. In all kinds of phosphorescence, oxydation and disoxydation probably act an essential part. Should we be obliged to assume a process of putrefaction in the sea, this is also an organic act, in which the putrefying substance, in the same manner as what is organic, comes into a relation with the atmosphere. But even putting all foreign substances out of the question, the sea has always a similar relation to the atmosphere, as its water, and the salt dissolved in it, become more oxydated by its motion. Whether this phenomenon therefore be explained as chemical, physical, or organical, this kind of shining appears as an effect of electricity, and of the process of oxydation in the sea, an effect which is increased and rendered visible by the peculiar beating of the waves. We leave it to other travellers more accurately to investigate and to correct the phenomena which we have stated, of the various kinds of phosphorescence and their causes.

Gibraltar and its environs are well delineated: but they are too familiar to the bulk of English readers, to require that

we should tarry among their rocky hills. The captain, having here received orders to proceed to Rio de Janeiro without waiting for the Portuguese convoy, left the bay on the 3d of June.—The lists of plants observed in different districts are generally drawn up with great care: but a few, such as *Vinca major*, *Crithmum maritimum*, *Cotyledon umbilicus*, *Oxalis corniculata*, *Hypericum androsæmum*, &c., are printed in italics to mark that they are peculiar to the south of Europe, whereas they are well-known residents of our own island, and have been traced at least as far north as Scotland.

On resuming their voyage, and traversing the ocean, the authors enter into some discussion on sea-sickness; and they seem solicitous to prove what few, we presume, are disposed to deny, that this most distressing affection proceeds from the motion of the vessel.

‘Several remedies have been proposed to remove or to alleviate this disagreeable sickness. Seafaring people especially recommend oranges, and the rust of the anchor. The most approved means against this evil are dietetical, and require above all things to remain as much as possible upon deck in the open air, and near the main-mast, where the rocking of the vessel is least felt; not to look at the surface of the sea at all, or not steadfastly; to accustom yourself, instead of fluid, and especially warm nutriment, to solid, cold, particularly acid food, and such as requires good digestion; for instance, salt fish, ham, &c., but principally to overcome the first attacks of the sickness, and even the disposition to vomit, by immediately taking heavy food, however reluctantly, and by pleasing amusement. Above all things, you must be careful not to leave the deck, or at the first attack of head-ach to go down into the confined air of the cabin. But if, notwithstanding, the disease becomes so severe that you become quite despondent, and hardly able to move, no relief is to be expected but from an entirely horizontal position, and from the sleep which then ensues. In this position it is advisable, after some repose, to take some porter, solid cold food, such as ham, and then return into the air. Resolution and amusement can do much, whereas meditation and mental exertion, particularly in weak persons, may excite or prolong the disease. The less people reflect, and the more they divert themselves by various employments, by walking about on deck, nay, even by fencing, and sailors’ work, the more easily do they become accustomed to the motion, particularly on a long voyage.’

At Madeira, a few busy hours were devoted to the examination of the neighbourhood of Funchal; particularly to the composition and magnetism of the basaltic lava, and its affinities for moisture. The diversified vegetation of the soil also attracted particular attention; and the naturalists returned in the evening, exhausted with their perambulation,
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and encumbered with spoils. On the 8th, they were again under sail. Bona Vista, one of the Cape de Verd islands, was descried on the 14th. After crossing the tropic of Capricorn, the wind gradually settled into an uniform and equable current from N. N. E., which enabled the frigate to run 150 miles in 24 hours. The hot temperature of the air, also, became more steady; and the moisture, during the morning and evening, was considerably increased. At night, the sea generally shone with great splendor, and the atmosphere was illumined by frequent lightning and innumerable falling stars. The ship now glided forwards with even rapidity, and the sailors found leisure for various amusements. The region of calms and tornados between the trade-winds is portrayed with graphic simplicity; and we would not willingly withhold from our readers the ensuing passage, though tinctured with the superstition of the church of Rome:

‘It was on Sunday, the 29th of June, that according to our ship’s reckoning we were to cross the equator. As the sea was pretty calm, mass was celebrated on this day. The solitude of the place, the silence and grandeur of the element to which the little vessel was confided, between the two hemispheres and in the middle of the vast ocean, could not fail in the moment when the transubstantiation was announced by the sound of the drum profoundly to affect every mind, but particularly those who then reflected on the power of Providence in nature, and on the mysterious metamorphosis of all things. The day passed over quietly with a constant S. E. wind; even Neptune and his strange retinue were not allowed to excite a disturbance on board the ship, by the usual ceremony of baptizing those who crossed the line for the first time. The night was bright and clear; the poles of the heavens were already resting on the horizon, and the full moon hung above our heads in glorious majesty; Vega, Arcturus, Spica, Scorpio, in which Jupiter just then shone, and the feet of the Centaur, were bright in the firmament; the southern Cross had attained a perpendicular position indicating the hour of midnight, when, according to calculation, we were at the place where heaven and earth were in equilibrium, and crossing the equator steered into the southern hemisphere. With what ardent hopes, with what inexpressible feelings, did we enter this other half of the world, which was to present us with an abundance of new scenes and discoveries! Yes, this moment was the most solemn and sacred in our lives. In it we saw the longings of earlier years accomplished, and, with pure joy and enthusiastic foreboding, indulged in the foretaste of a new world so rich in the wonders of nature.’

On the morning of the 14th of July, Cabo Frio was in sight; the magnificent entrance of the bay of Rio de Janeiro soon afterward opened on the view; and, at five o’clock in the evening, the anchor was dropped close to the city. Several pages

are immediately devoted to an account of this capital, which has been already often described. It is pleasing, however, to remark, that the transference of the court of Portugal, and the opening of the port to foreign vessels, have contributed to improve the general aspect and the public accommodations of the place. The character of the population, too, has sensibly benefited by the influx of Europeans; and, although the native Brazilians manifest more decided propensities to the pursuit of pleasure and luxury than to those of commerce, science, or the arts, yet their taste may be gradually moulded by a salutary reformation of the government and policy of their country, so as to appreciate the blessings of education, and to foster the diffusion of knowledge. In particular, the establishment of an university would save the great trouble and expence of sending the youth of the higher orders to Coimbra, and might impart useful instruction to the sons of the more humble citizens. At present, there is a public library, consisting of 70,000 volumes, but it is little frequented. The public course of the School of Surgery occupies five years, at the expiration of which the student may obtain his diploma of Master in Surgery. In Natural History, the collections are only in their infancy: but the lectures on Chemistry, and those on Commerce, are numerous attended. The institution of the Academy of Arts, by the late minister, Araujo, has proved somewhat premature: but the inhabitants are very partial to music, especially to singing, and to playing on the guitar; and not a few of the upper classes of society cultivate French poetry and *belles lettres*.

From the state of society at Rio, and from a sketch of the elegant and instructive evening-parties which assembled under the hospitable roof of M. Von Langsdorff, the Prussian Consul-general, and a distinguished naturalist, the authors pass to a description of the fine moonlight nights under a Brazilian sky; characterized as they are by coolness, fragrance, and repose. The consideration of the dews introduces some nosological and dietetical remarks, illustrative of the propriety of observing a simple and moderate regimen; and various observations on the diseases of the climate deserve the attention of persons who visit those regions. It is stated that, among the patients in the public hospital, 'are a few lunatics; but their number is extremely small in this country, where the cultivation of the intellectual faculties has not yet made any considerable progress.' Are we hence to infer the comparative prevalence of insanity among cultivated minds? Most of the cases in our own asylums are, we presume, those

those of uneducated or half-educated individuals. Enlightened understandings are, at all events, less susceptible of that description of derangement which has its origin in religious melancholy, or in sudden strokes of adversity: for they are taught to regard the plans of Providence as ordained in wisdom, benevolence, and mercy; and to soothe the pangs of suffering by salutary reflection and the conscientious discharge of the duties of life. It will, at the same time, be conceded that instances sometimes occur of mental aberration in men who are too exclusively addicted to the abstract sciences, and to prolonged and intricate calculations, the tendency of which is to exhaust the cerebral energies.

We are next presented with detailed statements of exports and imports; among which various products of British industry appear to be in particular demand, and to be admitted on favorable terms. A considerable traffic is also maintained with the neighbouring provinces. The mercantile information relative to this station bears the stamp of authenticity, and is conveyed, both in the text and in the notes, in a very intelligible form.

We proceed to accompany the travellers in some of their excursions in the environs of the city. At spring-tides, not only the mud of the sea but the offals of the town are deposited on the plains of the bay, and are eagerly devoured by thousands of carrion-vultures, which are tolerated as useful scavengers. The same soil is perforated by innumerable land-crabs, which are by many esteemed a delicacy. Here the gay and splendid luxuriance of tropical vegetation, enlivened by the brilliant and shifting hues of birds and butterflies, arrests the attention, as if by magic; and the eye expatiates with delight among gardens, new plantations, antient forests, and scattered villas. At the Botanic Garden, the cultivation of the tea-plant has lately been prosecuted to a considerable extent, under the management of Chinese people who are habituated to the employment: but the flavor of the dried leaves has not hitherto proved sufficiently delicate. — A visit to Mr. Langsdorff's estate gives rise to an animated picture of the interior of a tropical forest, composed in a style participating of that of Humboldt and that of Saint Pierre, but too much extended to be reduced into our pages. The hills all around (some of which rise to an elevation of 4000 feet) are generally composed of granite, covered with a stratum of red ferruginous clay, supposed to contain gold. When the travellers had occasion to pass a night in a poor village, at the height of 2260 Parisian feet above the level of the sea, although Reaumur's thermometer did not descend beyond 14°,
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(the temperature of a fine summer-evening in Europe,) yet they found it almost impossible to sleep for the cold.

'It is a fact,' they add, 'as remarkable as it is generally observed, that a few months' residence in a warm climate are sufficient to give the frame an extraordinary sensibility to the gradations of warmth. It probably proceeds from an increased action of the nervous system, which is a natural consequence of the great stimulus of the light and heat. This intensity of irritation, and the vivacity of all the organic functions during the day, are followed, when night sets in, by a considerable relaxation of the organic powers, so that only the coolness can brace the limbs anew. As the sun in these latitudes exercises its influence with more energy than in our country, and all nature therefore during the day is, if we may so express ourselves, more awake; so, on the other hand, as soon as it sinks below the horizon, more profound repose and deeper sleep succeed. The animal kingdom, too, sleep here more soundly and longer than in more northern latitudes; and even the plants, by closing and drooping their flowers and leaves, announce, more than among us, a suspension of the animation awakened by the sun.'

The mandioca root was observed to thrive very well in all the provinces, except in low wet grounds, and not to require much culture. The maize, which generally produces *two hundred fold*, is matured at the end of four or five months; and various sorts of beans ripen with still greater rapidity: but the finest orange-groves, and the richest crops of mandioca, sugar, &c., are often laid waste by swarms of monkeys, flocks of parrots and other birds, animals of the hog tribe, and myriads of wasps, termites, &c. Some species of the latter, with *blatte*, and various insects, not only infest houses, but speedily destroy furniture, books, and linen: while chigoes, and *acari*, of different denominations, penetrate the human skin, and occasion not only intolerable itching, but often dangerous inflammation. The safest mode of getting rid of these irritating assailants is to pick them off; or, if they have already gone too far in, to kill them by friction with brandy, or infusions or fumigations of tobacco. Ignorant emigrants from the cold or the temperate latitudes of Europe, novices to the habits of a tropical existence, are apt, when too late, especially if not aided and counselled by experienced friends, to repent of their change of country, and to fall victims to disappointment and vexation. 'He, however, who has happily passed over the first trials, who has secured a settlement in the beautiful country of Brazil, and accustomed himself to the tropical climate, will most willingly acknowledge it for his second home; nay, if he has again visited Europe, he will, with increased attachment, wish

wish himself back again; and, notwithstanding the doubts generally entertained of the habitableness of the torrid zone, will celebrate Brazil as the fairest and most glorious country on the surface of the globe.'

The rainy season, which usually lasts from October to March, had now set in: but the period allotted to the peregrinations of the naturalists being limited to two years, and the commencement of the rains giving new vigor to vegetable and animal life, they determined to get ready the requisite mules and other equipments for a progress into the interior of the country. A mulatto, who proved unworthy of confidence, was unfortunately engaged as conductor of the caravan, and a free negro and a slave were appointed to assist him; the German servant of the authors refusing, on any terms, to venture among the savages.

December 8. 1817, the party took leave of Rio de Janeiro, on their way to S. Paulo. As it commonly happens on the commencement of such journeys, the mules dispersed, or threw off their loads, and endeavored to escape, thus causing no little confusion and delay. The route lay S.S. W., over tracts of low land, along which some humble palms, in full blossom, filled the air with an odor like that of spermaceti. On the morning of the 10th, the travellers arrived at Santa Cruz; which, though lately decorated with the title of a town, consists principally of wretched clay huts, and remains nearly in the same condition as when it was described by Mr. Mawe. The royal dairy has not yet superseded the use of *Irish* butter, the cows being much neglected, and even those that are directly imported from Europe gradually losing their milk; owing, possibly, to the increased cutaneous action and perspiration. The Chinese colonists, who were settled here, are also in a declining state; sickness, and pining for their native homes, having carried off many of them, and others having quitted the spot in disgust. From the summit of a granitic mountain, which overlooks the plains of Santa Cruz, the observers caught a parting glimpse of the sea-coast, and pursued their way to a village of a miserable aspect, but surrounded by beautiful vegetation and interesting animals. Their progress, however, became more and more impeded by frequent precipices and clay pits, which obliged them to make circuits; and they had now to traverse a woody mountain-range, the highest of that branch of the Serra do Mar, which runs off from the principal chain that has a northerly direction: but the next series of mountains over which they passed was lower, and rose at longer intervals.

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The rains, which now continued uninterruptedly, not only during the night but also in the afternoon, greatly incommoded the naturalists; and the sudden increase of damp invested the plants and insects which they had collected with a yellowish mould, the *Eurotium herbarium* of Link. For several weeks the roads, if so they could be called, became nearly impassable, and the swelling of the mountain-streams, through which the drivers had often to carry the baggage on their backs, greatly retarded their progress. — On an eminence behind Bananal, they observed an obvious transition of the gneiss into mica-slate; and to the south of the same place are several chains of mountains, nearly parallel with one another, and all apparently composed of a coarse-grained granite. Some colonists raise Turkish wheat in the intervening valleys. — From the Morro Formosa, which bounds the territory of the provinces of Rio, the road declines through low mountains, population and culture visibly increase, and the uncommon richness of the scenery is represented as compensating for the fatigues and discomforts of the journey.

On leaving Tacasava, the mules were found to be so galled, through the mismanagement of their leader, as to be unfit for service; and it became necessary to halt in order to dress their wounds, and to procure some fresh animals. — To the south of Lorena, the wild and monotonous character of the forest disappeared, and was succeeded by open and fertile plains, in which the cultivation of tobacco is extensively and successfully conducted. — From the pleasingly situated village of Guaratingueta, the road continues in the valley of the Paraíba, skirted on the left by cultivated hills, and stretching on the right into a wide and dreary expanse of plain, which is terminated only by the Montiqueira mountains. This valley is chiefly covered with pastures, yielding grasses and other plants, most of which were new to the observers.

Before the travellers reached the small village of Mogy das Cruces, the gneiss-rock seemed to give place to red sandstone, alternating with layers of clay. With the close of the year, the party arrived at the city of S. Paulo, seated on a hill, in a plain, which is partly covered with bushes or groves. The streets are broad and clean; and the houses, mostly of two stories, are constructed of wooden posts and clay, with latticed balconies. Though the character of the native male Paulista is now much softened and subdued, it still retains a bias to anger and revenge, combined with personal bravery and stubbornness, and a roaming and melancholy disposition; whereas the females are unaffectedly cheerful, and even jovial, without licentiousness. Individuals of the upper ranks even cultivate

cultivate learning and philosophy. The population of the town and its environs amounts to upwards of 30,000, one half whites, and the other blacks, or people of color. The whole capitania was found, a few years ago, to contain about 215,000; the births being as one to twenty-one, and the deaths as one to forty-six. A taste for European luxuries is here less prevalent than at Rio, Bahia, Pernambuco, and Maranhão: the bull-fights and theatrical amusements are of an inferior description: but the women sing sweetly, and in the style of simple pastoral music. Although the whole province is peculiarly adapted to the breeding of cattle, yet the sugar-cane and other colonial articles are cultivated to a considerable extent. The only domestic manufactures are those of coarse woollens, and of common white beaver-hats: but one of arms has been lately established, or rather transferred from Rio by the government.

‘ The Bishop, Don Mattheus de Abreu Pereira, amuses himself in his garden in breeding silk worms, which easily multiply and produce an extremely beautiful thread. As the mulberry tree comes to great perfection in this climate, it may be confidently expected that the culture of silk will be carried on with great success. There is besides in this country another species of silk worm, which is found in abundance on a laurel-like shrub, particularly in Maranhão and Pará. This worm, whose thread promises a much more brilliant silk than that of Europe, has never yet been employed, although it might be with great facility. But what might become a still more profitable branch of cultivation is the cochineal; for the *Cactus coccinellifer*, with the insect peculiar to it, is found in many parts of the province of S. Paulo, particularly in sunny meadows. But the aversion of the inhabitants to undertaking laborious work, while they can gather other rich gifts of nature without trouble, may for the present check the propagation of the cochineal plant.’

Several useful statistical tables, relative to the population and resources of the province, are inserted in their proper places. It appears, however, that the taxes levied within its boundaries are inadequate to the public expenditure.

The environs of S. Paulo present a beautiful and smiling scene of hill and dale, wood and pasture, gardens and orchards. Many of the European fruits are found to thrive: but the grape and the olive have not hitherto succeeded. The predominant rock is an arenaceous iron-stone, or breccia, containing fragments of quartz, and resting on a gneiss-like granite, associated with several layers of lithomarge, indicating a very extensive and auriferous formation, the gold being disseminated in larger or smaller grains: but little of this precious metal is now procured in the neighbourhood of the town,

town, and the smelting establishment has been broken up. — The city, from its latitude, (being almost under the tropic of Capricorn,) and its elevated situation, enjoys all the advantages of a tropical climate, without much inconvenience from the heat: the cutaneous and digestive systems suffer less than in the more northerly provinces, and intermittent fevers are less frequent: but there is a more marked tendency to rheumatism and inflammation, as also to pulmonary and tracheal consumption; and dropsy is very general.

The magnetism of the celebrated iron-mines of Ypanema could scarcely fail to attract the steps of the naturalists, though they lay at twenty leagues' distance. The works have been recently fitted up on a large scale, and the smelting operations were to commence on the arrival of founders expected from Germany. Occasionally, the ore yields as much as 90 per cent.; and the mountain, which is chiefly composed of it, stretches a league in length from south to north, and rises 1000 feet above the Ypanema.

In the woods of this mountain, as on various other occasions, the authors remarked the dexterity and accuracy with which the natives discriminate trees and plants, merely by the inspection of the bark or leaf; also their knowledge of their medical virtues, — a knowledge not derived, as it has been supposed, from antient tradition, but from the acuteness of their own researches. It seems, however, to be admitted that a leading principle of their investigation is some fanciful association of color or form: thus, the fine red *Boletus sanguineus* is deemed powerful in stopping hæmorrhages, — the yellow wood, efficacious in complaints of the liver, — the heart-shaped leaves of *Mikania officinalis* strengthening and cordial, &c. Properties deduced from such accidental circumstances, and which in fact betray the rudest infancy of the healing art, are more than questionable, and not well calculated to inspire confidence in the alleged efficacy of many of the simples recorded in a long note, in the second volume of the work before us. Our faith in animal magnetism, also, is not very ardent; and yet an anecdote is given at page 58., which would denote its stimulating action, or at least its occasional influence on the system, through the intervention of the imagination.

An excursion to Porto Feliz leads to some historical notices of the adventures of the Paulistas in search of gold, and of the Indian tribes by whom they were opposed. At the aforesaid station, not very appropriately denominated *happy*, the dampness of the low houses, the nearness of the woods and rivers, and the prevalence of fogs, are so unfriendly to health,
that

that goîtres, intermittent fevers, dropsies, and catarrhs, are almost endemical. Yet maize and rice usually produce 250 fold. On their return to Ypanema, the travellers observed *Canna Indica* spontaneously growing in a marshy meadow : — ‘ an agreeable discovery, because it removed all doubts respecting the original country of this universally spread elegant plant.’* In this part of the narrative, the rearing of wild cattle, horses, and mules, is duly commemorated : but this extensive branch of rural economy has been sufficiently particularized by preceding writers.

On their way to Villa Rica, the two physicians visited a gloomy mulatto surgeon, ‘ whom a few applications of magnetism threw into *convulsions*, and then into a sound sleep :’ — but here, as on the former occasion, we are not informed whether the cure proved permanent. In traversing the mountainous district to Minas Geraës, the formation was observed to be still granitic ; the passage of streams and rivers was more than once effected with great difficulty and hazard ; and persons and luggage were often quite drenched with the heavy rains. To the north of the Servo, and about two miles from Mandù, were perceived the first traces of gold-washing ; an operation which subsequently became more apparent, and which formerly yielded much more of the precious metal than at present, when the labors of agriculture are found to be more productive.

‘ At S. Anna de Sapucahy, two leagues to the north of S. Vicente, we found the gold-washing (*Lavras*) of more considerable extent. At a distance they resembled skilfully erected fortifications. Trenches, several feet deep and broad, were dug upon terraced declivities for the purpose of conducting the rain-water into the open sides of the red loam. The washed loam was here and there thrown together in high heaps, or covered large tracts of land, through which artificial furrows were drawn. The whole presented a melancholy picture of wild desolation, in which even the roads are not spared ; and a view of it is the more painful to the traveller, since at the first place where he sees gold obtained, he finds, instead of hard money, paper currency and all the misery which it produces. In the capitania of Minas Geraës, in the place of the smaller current coin of 10, 20, 40, 80, 160, and 320 rees, there have been circulated for about fifteen years printed notes which are worth, according to the standard, a vintem of gold (37½ and not 20 rees), and are issued by the four gold smelting houses in the capitania. The object of this measure was partly to remedy the real scarcity of copper coin, and it was partly an advantage to the

* Rob. Brown, in Tuckey’s expedition to explore the river Zaire, p. 477., likewise considers it as American.’

government to get into its possession in exchange for such notes the smallest quantities of gold-dust which were current as small coin. The injury which this measure did to private credit and morality was soon doubled by the appearance of a great quantity of forged paper. The slovenly execution of these notes greatly facilitated the forging of them, which the hatred of the inhabitants immediately ascribed to the English. The province is now deluged with these notes, and suffers the more from it, because the amount is not diminished either by being exchanged by the smelting houses, or by being disposed of in other provinces.

The quantity of gum anime found under the roots of *Hymenæa courbaril* plausibly suggests a similar origin of amber, which may have accumulated under the trees that produced it before it was received and rounded by the sea. — In these regions, the treatment of patients laboring under the effects of serpentine poison is consigned to the *curadores*; who constitute an appropriate profession, and whose applications, mostly of a vegetable description, are blended with quackery. Several of those who have recovered under their management may not have been severely bitten; and, in other cases, the mere suction of the wound may have prevented the virus from being diffused in the circulation. The authors conclude their account of the practice of these *curadores* by observing, that they met with many persons who had been saved from the fatal consequences of the bite, but that they always remained weak, and were affected with swelling and ulcerations of the legs.

On the Corrego dos Pinheiros commences a new rock-formation, the granite and gneiss being succeeded by that description of micaceous or rather quartzose slate, which has been termed *elastic sand-stone*, and which is disposed in thin layers. It is generally white or yellowish, of a fine granular texture, and appears to be incumbent sometimes on granite, and sometimes on a lilac granite-gneiss, containing garnets and black shorl.

The geography of the Rio Grande, and of its affiliated streams, unfolds the prospect of a complete system of navigation, when commerce and civilization shall have been more widely diffused over Brazil. In the course of the route from S. Paulo to Villa Rica, after the traveller has passed the boundary whence the waters flow southwards to the Rio Grande, and northwards to the Rio de S. Francisco, the country gradually assumes a more rugged and alpine character. The small, romantic, and trading town of S. João d'el Rey agreeably relieves the wanderer from his fatigues and privations, especially if furnished with letters of introduction to the more opulent inhabitants, who are remarkably kind
and

and obliging to strangers. From this place to Villa Rica the road lies through many delightful alpine scenes, and abounds in interesting views of the valleys, in which scattered farms become more and more numerous.

‘ But we were particularly surprised,’ say the journalists, ‘ as we were ascending the steep Morro de Gravier, a continuation of Serra do Oiro Branco, at seeing some arborescent lilies, the thick naked stems of which, divided in the manner of a fork in a few branches ending in a tuft of long leaves, and being frequently scorched on the surface by burning of the meadows, are some of the most singular forms in the vegetable kingdom. The two species which have these forms, *barbacenia* and *vellosia*, are called in the country *Canella d’Ema*, and, on account of the resin they contain, are much used for fuel, wood being very scarce. They appear to thrive only on quartz mica-slate, and are considered by the inhabitants as a characteristic mark of the abundance of a country in gold and diamonds. They are most frequently met with here at an elevation of from 2000 to 4000 feet, always accompanied by a variety of the prettiest shrubby *rhexas*, *eriocaulon*, and *xylis*.’

An inconsiderable descent from the Morro de Gravier leads to the beautiful farms of Capão and of Lana, the district in which lies the repository of Brazilian topazes, and which is here minutely described in the text, as well as particularly elucidated in a note. The substance of these statements cannot, without injury to their value, be easily abridged : but it may be proper to apprise our geological readers, that they will find them not quite in unison with the reports of some preceding observers, though apparently intitled to more confidence.

On the 28th of February, the naturalists arrived at Villa Rica, the capital of Minas Geraës, containing 8500 inhabitants, and exhibiting the symptoms of a brisk trade and a thriving condition. Its climate, which is very temperate, is favorable to the cultivation of European fruits. The circumjacent mountainous and shadeless country is richer in metals and precious stones than in agricultural produce; affording gold, iron-stone, lead, copper, manganese, chrome, platina, quicksilver, arsenic, bismuth, diamonds, topazes, aquamarines, &c.: but the district owes its rapid population chiefly to the quantity of gold which has been extracted from it in the course of a century. This metal occurs in the form of powder, folia, or crystals, particularly octahedrons and tetrahedrons, and more rarely in lumps. ‘ There is an instance of a massy piece which weighed sixteen pounds; in colour, it is yellow, black, or whitish, according to the different proportions of the chemical and mechanical admixture of platina,

iron, and other metals. Hitherto it has been washed out of streams and rivers, from the clayey surface of the soil, or out of stamped auriferous quartz-veins, or iron-stone flötz. It is related that this metal has even been found in heaps, under the roots of plants pulled out of the ground, whither it had been accidentally washed by the rains. For the details of the washing and mining processes, and for descriptions of the several auriferous rocks, we refer to the text and to the learned illustrative notes.

The recital of the journey from Villa Rica to the Coroados Indians comprizes much curious information relative to those untutored children of nature : who are represented as sullen, selfish, and reserved, little susceptible of gratitude, or even of violent passions, but retentive of feelings of revenge, evincing hardly any regard to modesty, and excessively fond of brandy and other intoxicating liquors. Their lascivious dances are supposed to have been introduced by the negroes. The women, who go either naked or nearly so, and who bedaub their bodies with paintings, are the slavish drudges of their husbands ; who are prone to jealousy, and may dismiss their partners at pleasure. Both sexes are of a short, compact, and buncy form, with slender limbs : their skin is of a lighter or darker copper hue, according to the age, sex, or occupation of the individual : the hair is long, coarse, stiff, and of a glossy black : the countenance is broad and angular : the eyes are small ; and the nose is short and flattish. The mental range of these tribes is extremely circumscribed, and their enjoyments are chiefly restricted to the gratification of animal instincts. They believe in demons, with whom their *pajés*, or magical doctors, are supposed to hold intercourse ; and they entertain some vague notions of a future state : but, hitherto, they have remained incapable of comprehending the doctrines of Christianity, although some of them take an interest in the external ceremonies of the church of Rome. ' No trace of syphilis, small-pox, or measles, is met with among these Indians who have no intercourse with the Europeans ; but when introduced among them, these disorders very rapidly spread, and soon carry them off.' The prevalence of the first mentioned of these disorders, in every district of Brazil in which the Europeans have settled, is truly deplorable, and sadly attests the depravity of manners.

Little satisfactory information concerning their language could be elicited from the Coroados ; and, indeed, the multiplied diversities of oral communication among the different tribes of American Indians is not easily explained ; for they cannot be referred to dialects of a common tongue, as they have

very few synonymous radicals, and the members of contem-
minous hordes often do not understand one another. Spec-
imens of forty of these languages are reserved for the Appendix
of the present work. Two causes have mainly contributed
to retard the civilization of these natives; namely, the cha-
racter of the colonists in their neighbourhood, who have gene-
rally repaired to the forests to escape from justice, and the
cruel policy of employing one nation to combat another.

The concluding chapter of the second volume is occupied
with excursions in the environs of Villa Rica. In one of
these, the authors ascended the lofty Itacolumi, proceeding
for the greater part of the way on mules. The summit, which
is elevated about 5000 feet above the level of the sea, com-
mands, in profound silence and repose, a wide and varied
prospect of the surrounding mountain-chains, which are ver-
dant to the top. Here, at one o'clock P. M., the barometer
stood at 23, 6.75, and Reaumur's thermometer at 16. The
mountain consists of white quartz, or slate, traversed by scales
of mica; and it rests on a basis of brown, thin, foliated clay-
slate.

Drs. Von Spix and Von Martius next visited the mine of
Cujabeira, the repository of the chromate of lead; which
rare fossil is here found to exist in the same geological cir-
cumstances, and to exhibit the same crystalline forms, as at
Bérésot, in Siberia.

A lonely monastery, in a mountain-valley, and the sur-
rounding vegetation and scenery, are painted with engaging
simplicity: but we must now resist the temptation of farther
extracts, and be contented to return our grateful acknowledg-
ments to these intelligent and indefatigable travellers, for the
quantity of accurate and pleasing instruction which they have
already communicated to the public: unalloyed, too, by any
modish affectation of profound theories, or by the studied
artifices of style. The sequel of their narrative is destined to
indicate their progress to the capitania of Maranhão, the
island of St. Louis, Para, the Amazons, the mouth of the
Rio Negro, and their point of separation on the Rio Teffé:
Dr. Von Martius proceeding, by the most painful exertions,
over the rocks and cataracts of the Japura, and at length
arriving at the foot of the mountain Arascoara, separated from
Quito only by the Cordilleras; and Dr. Von Spix advancing
up the Teffé, crossing several rivers, and penetrating, through
clouds of poisoned arrows, noxious insects, and menacing
mountain-torrents, to the frontiers of Peru, where he heard
the language of the Incas. We wait, therefore, with more

than ordinary expectations, the appearance of the forthcoming volumes. — In the mean time, we should not omit to mention that Mr. Lloyd, the translator, appears to perform his task with care and fidelity:

ART. II. *Gesta Romanorum*: or, entertaining Moral Stories; invented by the Monks as a Fire-side Recreation; and commonly applied in their Discourses from the Pulpit: whence the most celebrated of our own Poets and others, from the earliest Times, have extracted their Plots. Translated from the Latin, with Preliminary Observations and copious Notes. By the Rev. Charles Swan, late of Catharine Hall, Cambridge. 2 Vols. 12mo. 18s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1824.

WE were glad to see these singular productions of the monkish times presented again to the attention of English readers, in a more inviting and modern garb. Mr. Swan has prefixed to them a well-written dissertation, in which all that could be collected from the researches of Warton and of Ritson relating to the history of these *Gests* will be found comprized, and interspersed with occasional illustrations and conjectures by the translator himself. As to several of these stories, it is most probable that they were picked out by some of the more learned monks in the dark ages, and by them allegorized and accommodated to the taste of their fraternities, or to the prepossessions and capacities of the vulgar. Respecting others, when once learning had supplied the facts, and ransacked the stores of Velleius Paterculus, Valerius Maximus, or Cornelius Nepos, for the anecdotes themselves, it might be expected that the ignorant part of the auditory would soon color and distort the circumstances in a thousand ways; so that a short course of tradition would convert a history into fable, and turn an extract from a Roman historian into a quotation from some more recent father of the church. It is no wonder, then, that in these stories of the dark ages time and place should be confused, Socrates introduced as haranguing in the court of the Emperor Claudius, and the history of Coriolanus given as that of a General living in the time of Constantine, and extracted from "The Chronicles of Eusebius."

The singularity of the applications is in many cases even more diverting than the ludicrous confusion of dates and personages. Thus, after having told the tale of Old Troy as from *Ovid*, the good monk makes the following application: 'My beloved, Paris represents the devil, and Helen the human soul or all mankind. Troy is hell. Ulixes is Christ, and Achilles

Achilles the Holy Ghost. The arms signify the cross, keys, lance, crown, &c. The following is an amusing instance of the same kind:

' We read in the Roman annals of a prince called Pompey. He was united to the daughter of a nobleman, whose name was Cæsar. It was agreed between them to bring the whole world into subjection; and with this view Pompey gave instructions to his associate to possess himself of certain distant fortresses: for the latter being a young man, it became him to be most active and vigilant. In the mean while, Pompey, as the chief person of the commonwealth, endeavoured to guard it against the machinations of their enemies; and appointed a particular day for the return of Cæsar;—in failure of which, his property was to be confiscated to the use of the Roman empire. Five years were allowed him; and Cæsar, assembling a large army, marched rapidly into the country he was about to attack. But the inhabitants being warlike, and aware of his approach, he was unable to subdue them in the specified time. Caring, therefore, to offend Pompey, less than to relinquish his conquests, he continued abroad considerably beyond the five years; and was consequently banished the empire, and his wealth appropriated by the government. When Cæsar had concluded the campaign he turned towards Rome, marching with his forces across a river, distinguished by the name of Rubicon. Here a phantom of immense stature, standing in the middle of the water, opposed his passage. It said, "Cæsar, if your purpose be the welfare of the state, pass on; but if not, beware how you advance another step." Cæsar replied, "I have long fought for, and am still prepared to undergo every hardship in defence of Rome; of which I take the gods whom I worship to be my witnesses." As he said this, the phantom vanished. Cæsar then turning a little to the right, crossed the river; but having effected his passage, he paused on the opposite bank:—"I have rashly promised peace," said he; "for in this case, I must relinquish my just right." From that hour he pursued Pompey with the utmost virulence, even to the death; and was himself slain afterwards by a band of conspirators.

' *Application.*—My beloved, by Pompey understand the Creator of all things; Cæsar signifies Adam, who was the first man. His daughter is the soul, betrothed to God. Adam was placed in Paradise to cultivate and to guard it; but not fulfilling the condition imposed upon him, like Cæsar, he was expelled his native country. The Rubicon is baptism, by which mankind re-enters a state of blessedness.'

This method of allegorizing history, so prevalent in the most ignorant times, was used perhaps in some instances as a pretext for introducing profane learning by those who could not entirely forego such studies, and yet wished to maintain the exclusive pretensions of sacred literature. Other pious devotees doubtless allegorized in pure sincerity; and, as their imagina-

tions were filled with crosses and the Virgin Mary, they could discover traces of Christ, and of all the Christian mysteries, in any book over which they chanced to pore. They did not trouble themselves to think whether the notions that were passing in their own brains were, or could be, equally familiar to the minds of Pagan authors; and still less did they hit on that discovery, which has been reserved for ingenuity of a higher order, that an author may mean one event and his sense be fulfilled by another event. The doctrine of a double interpretation never entered into their unrefined understanding. Their blunder was a very simple one: they concluded that it must have been intended to convey the notions which a history of Pagan antiquity suggested to their own minds. — Other stories bear marks of Oriental origin, and seem to be remnants of the treasures of fiction imported from the East by the diligence of the Crusaders. We think that these, and the relics of monkish history or invention, are the most curious and interesting portions of the whole collection. The story of feminine Subtlety might deserve a place among the “Arabian Nights’ Entertainments;” and we doubt not that the little incidents, which are introduced to give it a Christian cast, are substituted for corresponding peculiarities of an Eastern character.

‘ King Darius was a circumspect prince, and had three sons, whom he much loved. On his death-bed he bequeathed the kingdom to the first-born; to the second, all his own personal acquisitions; and to the third, a golden ring, a necklace, and a piece of valuable cloth. The ring had the power to render any one, who bore it on his finger, beloved; and, moreover, obtained for him whatsoever he sought. The necklace enabled the person who wore it upon his breast, to accomplish his heart’s desire; and the cloth had such virtue, that whosoever sat upon it, and thought where he would be carried, there he instantly found himself. These three gifts the king conferred upon the younger son, for the purpose of aiding his studies; but his mother retained them until he was of a proper age. Soon after the bequests, the old monarch gave up the ghost, and was magnificently buried. The two elder sons then took possession of their legacies; and the mother of the younger delivered to him the ring, with the caution, that he should beware of the artifices of women, or he would otherwise lose the ring. Jonathan (for that was his name) took the ring, and went zealously to his studies, in which he made himself a proficient. But walking one day through the street, he observed a very beautiful woman, with whom he was so much struck, that he took her to him. He continued, however, to use the ring, and found favour with every one, insomuch that whatever he desired he had.

‘ Now

Now the lady was greatly surprised that he lived so splendidly, having no possessions; and once, when he was particularly exhilarated, tenderly embraced him, and protested that there was not a creature under the sun whom she loved so much as she did him. He ought therefore, she thought, to tell her by what means he supported his magnificence. He explained the virtues of the ring; and she begged that he would be careful of so invaluable a treasure. "But," added she, "in your daily intercourse with men you may lose it: place it in my custody, I beseech you." Overcome by her entreaties he gave up the ring; and when his necessities came upon him, she refused to relinquish it. He lamented bitterly, but now he had not any means of subsistence; and hastening to his mother, stated how he had lost his ring. "My son," said she, "I forewarned you of what would happen, but you have paid no attention to my advice. Here is the necklace, preserve it more carefully. If it be lost, you will for ever want a thing of the greatest honour and profit." Jonathan took the necklace, and returned to his studies. At the gate of the city his concubine met him, and received him with the appearance of great joy. He remained with her, wearing the necklace upon his breast; and whatever he thought he possessed. As before, he lived so gloriously, that the lady wondered, well knowing that he had neither gold nor silver. She guessed, therefore, that he carried another talisman; and cunningly drew from him the history of the wonder-working necklace. "Why," said the lady, "do you always take it with you? you may think in one moment more than can be made use of in a year. Let me keep it."—"No," replied he, "you will lose the necklace, as you lost the ring; and thus I shall receive the greatest possible injury."—"O, my lord," replied she, "I have learnt by having had the custody of the ring how to secure the necklace; and I assure you no one can possibly get it from me." The silly youth confided in her words, and delivered the necklace.

Now when all he possessed was expended, he sought his talisman; and she, as before, solemnly protested that it had been stolen. This threw Jonathan into the greatest distress.—"Am I mad," cried he, "that after the loss of my ring, I should give up the necklace?" Immediately hastening to his mother, he related to her the whole circumstance. Not a little afflicted, she said, "O my dear child, how canst thou place confidence in a woman who has twice deceived thee? People will believe thee a fool: but be wise, for I have nothing more for you than the valuable cloth which your father left; and if you lose that, it will be quite useless returning to me." Jonathan received the cloth, and again went to his studies. The concubine seemed very joyful; and he, spreading out the cloth, said, "My dear girl, my father bequeathed me this beautiful cloth, sit down upon it by my side." She complied, and Jonathan secretly wished that they were in a desert place, out of the reach of man. The talisman took effect; they were carried into a forest on the uttermost boundary of the world, where there was not a trace of humanity. The lady wept bitterly, but Jonathan

than paid no regard to her tears. He solemnly vowed to heaven, that he would leave her a prey to the wild beasts, unless she restored his ring and necklace, and this she promised to do. Presently yielding to her request, the foolish Jonathan discovered the power of the cloth; and, in a little time being weary, placed his head in her lap and slept. In the interim, she contrived to draw away that part of the cloth upon which he reposed, and sitting upon it alone, wished herself where she had been in the morning. The cloth immediately executed her wishes, and left Jonathan slumbering in the forest. When he awoke, and found his cloth and concubine departed, he burst into an agony of tears. Where to bend his steps he knew not; but arising, and fortifying himself with the sign of the cross, he walked along a certain path, until he reached a deep river, over which he must pass. But he found it so bitter and hot, that it even separated the flesh from the bones. Full of grief, he conveyed away a small quantity of that water, and when he had proceeded a little further, felt hungry. A tree upon which hung the most tempting fruit invited him to partake; he did so, and immediately became a leper. He gathered also a little of the fruit, and conveyed it with him. After travelling for some time, he arrived at another stream, of which the virtue was such, that it restored the flesh to his feet; and eating of a second tree he was cleansed from his leprosy. Some of that fruit he likewise took along with him.

Walking in this manner day after day, he came at length to a castle, where he was met by two men, who inquired what he was. "I am a physician," answered he. — "This is lucky," said the other; "the king of this country is a leper, and if you are able to cure him of his leprosy, vast rewards will be assigned you." He promised to try his skill; and they led him forward to the king. The result was fortunate; he supplied him with the fruit of the second tree, and the leprosy left him; and washing the flesh with the water, it was completely restored. Being rewarded most bountifully, he embarked on board a vessel for his native city. There he circulated a report that a great physician was arrived; and the lady who had cheated him of the talismans being sick unto death, immediately sent for him. Jonathan was so much disguised that she retained no recollection of him, but he very well remembered her. As soon as he arrived, he declared that medicine would avail nothing, unless she first confessed her sins; and if she had defrauded any one, it must be restored. The lady, reduced to the very verge of the grave, in a low voice acknowledged that she had cheated Jonathan of his ring, necklace, and cloth; and had left him in a desert place to be devoured by wild beasts. When she had said this, the pretended physician exclaimed, "Tell me, lady, where these talismans are?" — "In that chest," answered she; and delivered up the keys, by which he obtained possession of his treasures. Jonathan then gave her of the fruit which produced leprosy; and, after she had eaten, of the water which separated the flesh from the bones. The consequence was, that she was excruciated with agony. Jonathan hastened to his

mother, and the whole kingdom rejoiced at his return. He told by what means God had freed him from such various dangers; and, having lived many years, ended his days in peace.

Application.—My beloved, the king is Christ; the queen-mother, the church; and the three sons, men living in the world. The third son is any good Christian: the ring is faith; the necklace is grace or hope; and the cloth, charity. The concubine is the flesh; the bitter water is repentance, and the first fruit is remorse; the second water is confession, and the second fruit is prayer, fasting, and almsgiving. The leprous king is any sinful man; the ship in which Jonathan embarked is the Divine command.

The subsequent is of a similar cast:

‘There was an emperor whose porter was remarkably sagacious. He earnestly besought his master, that he might have the custody of a city for a single month, and receive, by way of tax, one penny for every crook-backed, one-eyed, scabby, leprous, or ruptured person. The emperor admitted his request, and confirmed the gift under his own seal. Accordingly, the porter was installed in his office; and as the people entered the city, he took note of their defects, and charged them a penny, in conformity with the grant. It happened that a hunch-backed fellow one day entered, and the porter made his demand. Hunch-back protested that he would pay nothing. The porter immediately laid hands upon him, and accidentally raising his cap, discovered that he was *one-eyed* also. He demanded two pennies forthwith. The other still more vehemently opposed, and would have fled; but the porter catching hold of his head, the cap came off, and disclosed a bald *scabby* surface. Whereupon he required three pennies. Hunch-back, very much enraged, persisted in his refusal, and began to struggle with the determined porter. This produced an exposure of his arms, by which it became manifest that he was *leprous*. The fourth penny was therefore laid claim to; and the scuffle continuing, revealed a *rupture*, which entitled him to a fifth. Thus, a fellow unjustly refusing to pay a rightful demand of one penny, was necessitated, much against his inclination, to pay *five*.*

Application.—My beloved, the emperor is Christ. The porter is any prelate, or discreet confessor; the city is the world. The diseased man is a sinner.

Among the histories of the monkish times, every reader must be pleased to recognize the story of Guy the famous Earl of Warwick in the tale of Guido, and must be surprized to learn the application of the most eventful circumstances in the life of that renowned knight. It is this: ‘My beloved, the knight represents Christ, the wife is the soul, and Tyrius is man in general. The weasel typifies John and the other

* * This tale is in Alphonsus, and the *Cento Novelle Antiche*, Nov. 50.

prophets who predicted the coming of Christ; the mountain is the world; the dead dragon is the old law, and the treasure within it is the Ten Commandments; the sword is authority; the king's daughter, the Virgin Mary; the seven sons of Plebeus are seven mortal sins; the fisherman is the Holy Ghost.

Several of these tales are justly valuable as illustrations of the state of society during the prevalence of monastic institutions throughout Europe. Some exhibit a sort of antipathy and contempt of the fair sex, such as celibacy, unmodified by the habits of social intercourse, might be supposed calculated to create: while in others, tales of adultery, which might have been the models of Chaucer's "Miller of Trumpington," or of "January and May," are told with a simple carelessness indicative of the frequency and familiarity of such occurrences. One tale is written for the express purpose of assuring communicants that they cannot be affected by the course of life which the priest, who administers the sacraments, may happen to lead; and that it is a dangerous sin for any body to have scruples about hearing mass performed on account of the scandalous life of the minister.

The translator's notes are copious, and do great credit to his judgment in the selection and arrangement of his materials. The obligations of several of the Italian novelists to the original, and those of Shakspeare to the old English translation, are well known to all who have ever dipped into these subjects. It should also be mentioned to Mr. Swan's honor, that he states with due candor the sources to which he is indebted for the greater part of the illustrations here offered to us, and that his own remarks are uniformly written in a tone of modesty and good nature. In short, the stories are a sort of entertainment in which facts are relieved by fiction, and humor is dashed and sprinkled with seasonable admonition; and the style of the translator's notes is well suited to the character of the work which they are intended to illustrate.

ART. III. *Historical View of the Literature of the South of Europe*; by J. C. L. Simonde de Sismondi, of the Academy and Society of Arts of Geneva, &c. Translated from the Original, with Notes, by Thomas Roscoe, Esq. 8vo. 4 Vols. 2l. 12s. Boards. Colburn. 1823, 1824.

UNTIL lately, the history of literature and science had not been cultivated in Europe with an attention proportioned to its importance and utility: yet the progress of culture ought

ought to be a higher concern than the adventures of a dynasty. We record the feuds of barons and the wars of kings, as if they were lessons of experience from which any thing could now be learnt; and we seem to forget that celebrity may excite to a repetition of the actions which it proclaims. Conflicts of mind, however, are a purer source of national glory than conflicts of arms; and the compilations of erudition, the embellishments of fancy, and the exertions of intellect, endure from age to age with undiminishing splendor. The strong live at all times, but they die unremembered where the bard and the orator are wanting*: while the writer is sufficient to his own fame, and inscribes an epitaph coëval with his usefulness. Empires themselves are finally estimated by the crop of genius which they produce; and though the cities of commerce, the barracks of soldiery, or the palaces of monarchs, crumble into dust, the obelisks of literary art present a towering and lasting monument of human genius. Athens was less wealthy than Carthage, less military than Sparta, and less wisely governed than Crete: but, having been the dwelling-place of learning, science, taste, and genius, her language still occupies the toil and her ruins still attract the pilgrimage of the accomplished; while her intellect, essentially immortal, is creating a soul under the ribs of death, preparing to burst the sepulchre of 2000 years, and to revive deceased Greece in all the glories of a new existence.

Eichhorn gave this literary turn to the historiography of Europe, by his *Allgemeine Geschichte der Cultur und Litteratur des neueren Europa*, published in 1795; an admirable introduction to the annals of the revival of letters, which branched off into various special accounts of the progress of art, of science, of Scripture-criticism, and of elegant literature. For these details, he employed coadjutors of unequal merit. Fiorillo wrote well on art: but Bouterweck has especially excelled the rest of his fellow-labourers by his erudite history of poetry and eloquence: indeed, to him Ginguéné for his account of Italian, and Schoell for his account of Spanish literature, and even the writer of the more comprehensive work now before us, are principally indebted for their materials; although they may allot more or less extent, and more or less rank, to the leading authors under survey. We have said so much on the merits of M. Simonde de Sismondi in our notice of the French original, (vol. lxxv. p. 503., and vol. lxxvi. p. 479.) that on this point we may now be contented with referring to our former abstract of its contents, and confine ourselves to the character of the translation. The prose is rendered with

* "*Vixere fortes ante Agamemnona multi,*" &c.

fidelity,

fidelity, precision, and elegance; and the numerous metrical quotations interspersed are versified with spirit, grace, and beauty. We speak of those which the translator has given from his own pen: but in many instances he has copied from existing versions; modestly stating that he has been 'compelled' to insert his own where none such existed.

An agreeable addition to what we said of the Troubadours, in our *lxxvth* volume, will be Mr. Roscoe's note on the text.

'M. de Sismondi has announced his intention of devoting his attention, hereafter, to the production of a similar work on the literature of the North. He will, probably, there give an account of the poets who, in Germany, under the name of Minnesingers, were equally prolific with the Troubadours, during precisely the same era. The emperors of the Suabian line were great patrons of the Muses. M. de Sismondi has cited a little piece, usually attributed to Frederic Barbarossa. Their connexion with Italy, Sicily, and Provence, unites the German literature of that age so intimately with that of the southern dialects, that it would have been very desirable if all could have been brought under one view, to illustrate their mutual affinities and influences. So popular was the German Muse, that there are even instances of Italian poets composing in that language, as well as in the Provençal.

'In comparing the poetic merits of the Troubadours and Minnesingers, it seems impossible to avoid differing from the opinion expressed by M. de Sismondi, and awarding the palm to the latter. They partake very little of the metaphysical speculations and refinements of the Troubadours, while the harmony and grace of their versification are pre-eminent. The unbounded gaiety with which it revels in the charms of nature, and the spirit of tenderness and affection which it displays, give their poetry charms which very seldom adorn that of their rivals.'

'The translator trusts that he may be excused for adding two specimens of the lighter pieces of these "singers," for which, as well as for a few of the translations of the Troubadours, inserted in this work, he is indebted to the papers of a friend, who, for the purpose of bringing all the contemporary songsters of this age into one view, is preparing a volume for publication. It is entitled "Specimens selected and translated from the Lyric Poetry of the German Minnesingers or Troubadours of the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth Centuries, illustrated by similar Selections and Translations from the Poets of the Provençal and other Southern Dialects."

'The following song is the production of Dietmar von Aste:

'There sate upon the linden tree
A bird, and sang its strain;
So sweet it sang, that as I heard
My heart went back again.
It went to *one* remember'd spot,
It saw the rose-trees grow,
And thought again the thoughts of love
There cherish'd long ago.

'A thousand

' A thousand years to me it seems,
Since by my fair I sate ;
Yet thus to be a stranger long,
Is not my choice, but fate :
Since then I have not seen the flowers,
Nor heard the bird's sweet song :
My joys have all too briefly past,
My griefs been all too long.'

' The following song of Earl Conrad of Kirchberg is translated very closely, and in the same measure as the original :

' May, sweet May, again is come ;
May, that frees the land from gloom :
Children, children, up and see
All her stores of jollity !
O'er the laughing hedgerows' side
She hath spread her treasures wide ;
She is in the greenwood shade,
Where the nightingale hath made
Every branch and every tree
Ring with her sweet melody :
Hill and dale are May's own treasures,
Youth, rejoice in sportive measures ;
Sing ye ! join the chorus gay !
Hail this merry, merry May !

' Up, then, children, we will go
Where the blooming roses grow,
In a joyful company
We the bursting flowers will see ;
Up ! your festal dress prepare !
Where gay hearts are meeting, there
May hath pleasures most inviting,
Heart, and sight, and ear delighting :
Listen to the bird's sweet song,
Hark ! how soft it floats along !
Courtly dames our pleasures share,
Never saw I May so fair ;
Therefore dancing will we go :
Youths rejoice, the flowrets blow ;
Sing ye ! join the chorus gay !
Hail this merry, merry May !

' Our manly youths, — where are they now ?
Bid them up, and with us go
To the sporters on the plain ;
Bid adieu to care and pain,
Now, thou pale and wounded lover !
Thou thy peace shalt soon recover :
Many a laughing lip and eye
Speak the light heart's gaiety.
Lovely flowers around we find,
In the smiling verdure twined,

Richly steep'd, in May dews glowing;
 Youths! rejoice, the flowers are blowing;
 Sing ye! join the chorus gay!
 Hail this merry, merry May!

' Oh, if to my love restored,
 Her, o'er all her sex adored,
 What supreme delight were mine!
 How would Care her sway resign!
 Merrily in the bloom of May,
 I would weave a garland gay;
 Better than the best is she,
 Purer than all purity!
 For her spotless self alone,
 I will sing this changeless one;
 Thankful or unthankful, she
 Shall my song, my idol, be.
 Youths, then, join the chorus gay!
 Hail this merry, merry May!

As a farther specimen of Mr. Roscoe's prose, we will copy from the second volume the account of a singular heresy, which had for its object the revival of the polytheism of antient Greece. It would not be surprizing if, in some of the Greek islands, this classical enthusiasm were to rekindle, and to come into collision with the intolerance of the modern Greek church: but let us hope that its priesthood will be content with the literary forms of repression, and not imitate the church of Rome in appealing to the arm of the magistrate.

' The first persecution, which letters experienced in Italy, dates from the middle of the fifteenth century. It was short-lived, but violent, and has left melancholy traces in the history of literature. The city of Rome was desirous, after the example of other capitals, of founding an academy, consecrated to letters and to the study of antiquity. The learned Popes, who had been elevated to the chair of St. Peter, in the fifteenth century, had beheld with satisfaction, and encouraged this literary zeal. A young man, an illegitimate son of the illustrious house of San Severino, but who, instead of assuming his family appellation, embraced the Roman name of Julius Pomponius Lætus, after having finished his studies under Lorenzo Valla, succeeded him, in 1457, in the chair of Roman eloquence. He assembled around him, at Rome, all those who possessed that passion for literature and for ancient philosophy, by which the age was characterized. Almost all were young men; and, in their enthusiasm for antiquity, they gave themselves Greek and Latin names, in imitation of their leaders. In their meetings, it is said, they declared their predilection for the manners, the laws, the philosophy, and even the religion of antiquity, in opposition to those of their own age. Paul II., who was then Pope, was not, like many of his predecessors, indebted to a love of letters for his elevation to the pontificate. Suspicious, jealous,

and cruel, he soon became alarmed at the spirit of research and enquiry which marked the new philosophers. He felt how greatly the rapid progress of knowledge might contribute to shake the authority of the church, and he viewed the devotion of these scholars to antiquity, as a general conspiracy against the state and the holy faith. The academy, of which Pomponius Lætus was the chief, seemed particularly to merit his attention. In the midst of the Carnival, in 1468, whilst the people of Rome were occupied with the festival, he arrested all the members of the academy who were then to be found in the capital. Pomponius Lætus alone was absent. He had retired to Venice, the year after the elevation of Paul II. to the pontificate, and had resided there three years; but, as he held a correspondence with the academicians at Rome, the Pope beheld in him the chief of the conspiracy, and procured his apprehension, through the favour of the Venetian senate. The academicians were then imprisoned and consigned to the most cruel tortures. One of the number, Agostino Campano, a young man of great expectations, expired under his sufferings. The others, among whom were Pomponius himself and Platina, the historian of the Popes, underwent the ordeal, without the confession of any criminal motive being extorted from them. The Pope, exasperated at their obstinacy, repaired himself to the castle of St. Angelo, and ordered the interrogatories to be repeated under his own eyes; not upon the supposed conspiracy, but on subjects of faith, in order to detect the academicians in some heretical doctrines; but in this he was disappointed. He declared, however, that any person who should name the academy, either seriously or in jest, should thenceforth be considered a heretic. He detained the unfortunate captives a year in prison; and, when he at length released them, it was without acknowledging their innocence. The death of Paul II. put an end to this system of persecution. Sixtus IV., his successor, confided to the care of Platina the library of the Vatican, and he allowed Pomponius Lætus to re-commence his public lectures. The latter succeeded in re-assembling his dispersed academicians. He was esteemed for his probity, his simplicity, and his austerity of manners. He devoted his life to the study of the monuments of Rome; and it is more particularly owing to him, that we have been enabled to form a correct judgment on its antiquities. He died in 1498. His death was regarded as a public calamity, and no scholar had, for a long period, obtained such distinguished obsequies.

The conspiracy of Campanella may deserve notice, as it bears considerable resemblance to the recent insurrections of modern Greece in the religious and the republican character of the enterprise.

‘Frà Tomaso Campanella was the author of many eccentric productions relating to philosophy and magic. He organized a conspiracy among the monks, with the authority of several bishops, for the purpose of establishing a republic in Calabria. Three hundred priests became a party to it, and fifteen hundred bandits were.

in a short time, put under arms. The appearance of the Turkish fleet, commanded by Murat Reys, under whose auspices the new republic was placed, was fixed upon as the signal of revolt, when it should arrive off Stilo, Campanella's native place. It came in sight on the fourteenth of September, 1599, but he had been arrested, by order of the Viceroy, fifteen days before, and his companions were put to death with almost every variety of punishment.

In the third volume, the account of Alfieri is embellished with many successful poetic translations; from which we select a pathetic speech put into the mouth of Electra, who addresses her mother Clytemnestra.

‘ Beloved mother,
What art thou doing? I do not believe
That a flagitious passion fires thy breast.
Involuntary fondness, sprung from pity,
Which youth, especially when 'tis unhappy,
Is apt to inspire, these, mother, are the baits
By which, without thyself suspecting it,
Thou hast been caught. Thou hast not hitherto
Each secret impulse rigorously examined:
A bosom conscious of its rectitude
Hardly admits suspicion of itself;
And here, perchance, there is no ground for it;
Perchance thy fame thou yet hast scarcely sullied,
Much less thy virtue, and there still is time
To make atonement with one easy step. —
Ah! by the sacred shade, so dear to thee,
Of thy devoted daughter; by that love
Which thou hast ever shewn and felt for me, —
That love of which to-day I am not unworthy:
How can I more persuasively adjure thee?
By thy son's life, Orestes' life, I pray thee
Pause on the brink of this tremendous gulf:
Beloved mother, pause. Afar from Argos
Banish Ægisthus: stop malignant tongues
By thy deportment: with thy children weep
The hardships of Atrides, and frequent
With them the sacred temples of the gods
To implore his swift return.’

The Ode of Herrera to Sleep at p. 308. is characteristically rendered: the extracts from the *Araucana* surpass the rival version of Hayley: a scene from a rhymed comedy of Lopez de Vega adorns p. 487.; and even the difficult task is repeatedly accomplished of rendering sonnets with felicity. We copy the Ode:

‘ Sweet Sleep! that through the starry path of night,
With dewy poppies crown'd, pursuest thy flight,

Stiller

Still of human woes !
That shed'st o'er nature's breast a soft repose ;
Oh ! to these distant climates of the west
Thy slowly wandering pinions turn ;
And with thy influence blest,
Bathe these love-burthen'd eyes that ever burn
And find no moment's rest ;
While my unceasing grief
Refuses all relief !
O hear my prayer ! I ask it by thy love,
Whom Juno gave thee in the realms above.
 ' Sweet power, that dost impart
Gentle oblivion to the suffering heart,
Beloved Sleep, thou only canst bestow
A solace for my woe !
Thrice happy be the hour
My weary limbs shall feel thy sovereign power !
Why to these eyes alone deny
The calm thou pour'st on Nature's boundless reign !
Why let thy votary all neglected die,
Nor yield a respite to a lover's pain ?
And must I ask thy balmy aid in vain ?
Hear, gentle power, oh hear my humble prayer,
And let my soul thy heavenly banquet share.
 ' In this extreme of grief, I own thy might ;
Descend and shed thy healing dew ;
Descend and put to flight
Th' intruding dawn, that with her garish light
My sorrows would renew.
Thou hear'st my sad lament, and in my face
My many griefs may'st trace !
Turn then, sweet wanderer of the night, and spread
Thy winds around my head ;
Haste, for th' unwelcome morn
Is now on her return !
Let the soft rest the hours of night denied,
Be by thy lenient hand supplied.
 ' Fresh from my summer bowers,
A crown of soothing flowers,
Such as thou lov'st, the fairest and the best,
I offer thee ; won by their odours sweet
Th' enamour'd air shall greet
Thy advent ; oh then, let thy hand
Express their essence bland,
And o'er my eye-lids pour delicious rest.
Enchanting power ! soft as the breath of Spring
Be the light gale that steers thy dewy wing ;
Come, ere the sun ascends the purple east,
Come, end my woes ; so, crown'd with heavenly charms,
May fair Pasithea take thee to her arms.'

After having surveyed the literature of the Provençal nations, of Italy, and of Spain, M. de Sismondi concludes with that of Portugal. He is fortunate in having found so accomplished a translator; and the entire work merits high commendation. Perhaps, indeed, it is the best specimen of literary history which circulates in our language, for not only is the topic wisely chosen but worthily treated. A brief index facilitates references, but might have been more copious.

ART. IV. *Mary Stuart, a Tragedy. The Maid of Orleans, a Tragedy.* From the German of Schiller, with a Life of the Author. By the Rev. H. Salvin, M. B. 8vo. pp. 420. 10s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1824.

SCHILLER is an author now well known to British readers, and highly appreciated by them: they will therefore be glad to receive not only these two plays, translated into the English language, but the biographical particulars of him which precede them. From this memoir we learn that the dramatist was born at Marbach in 1759, sent to school at Ludwigsburg, and transferred in 1773 to a sort of military college then founded by the reigning Duke of Wirtemberg; where he continued until 1781, occupied in the study of medicine, in order to qualify himself for a physician on the staff. At this academy he produced "The Robbers," which was published in 1780. The turbulent, not to say revolutionary, character of this play displeased the court at Stuttgart, and Schiller was commanded by the Duke to confine his publications to medicine: but such a prohibition only provoked him to quit the duchy without leave, after which he retired to the house of a school-fellow at Wollzogen, assumed a feigned name, and there composed "Fieske," "Cabal and Love," and a part of "Don Carlos." In 1783 he removed to Mannheim, where the managers of the theatre were willing to reward his talents; and the first two acts of Don Carlos, having been inserted in the *Deutsche Merkur* and criticized by Wieland, drew the attention of the Duke of Saxe-Weimar, who conferred on Schiller the rank of Aulic counsellor, accompanied by a small pension. He went to Leipzig in 1785, and thence to Dresden, where he continued for two years, employed in conducting a periodical publication, in which he inserted by fragments his "Ghost-seer." In 1787 he visited Weimar, and in 1788 Rudolstadt, where he became first acquainted with the Miss Lengefeld whom he married. During the next year, he obtained at Gottingen a professorship of History, and

and published his "Revolt of the Netherlands;" and in the following year the Duke of Saxe-Weimar augmented his pension, invited him to his residence, and thus enabled him to marry the woman of his choice. Symptoms of pulmonary consumption, however, appeared in 1791, which progressively undermined his health and finally terminated his existence. The Duke of Holstein had the merit of alleviating his sorrows by the grant of another pension: but, finding his independence too narrow for his wants, he undertook to fill once more a professor's chair, and went to Jena, where he composed the "History of the Thirty Years' War." He tried the baths at Heilbronn in 1793, and obtained leave to revisit Stuttgart and the friends of his youth. In 1796 he produced "Wallenstein," "The Diver," "The Walk to the Forge," and other good compositions. Having received an increase of pension at Weimar in 1799, he thenceforwards resided there. "Mary Stuart" appeared in 1800; the "Maid of Orleans," in 1801; the "Bride of Messina," in 1803; and his great master-piece, "Wilhelm Tell," in 1804. A spitting of blood took place in 1805, which snatched him from his comforts and his glories, on the 9th of May, at the early age of 45.

'Mary Stuart' was translated into English very faithfully by J. C. Mellish, Esq., the British consul at Hamburg, who in 1801 offered his version, which Schiller had approved, to the London theatre, where both the author and the translator thought that the play would succeed. The manager did not even acknowledge the offer, says Mr. Mellish, but his own publication was afterward plundered for the stage, and the tragedy is become a stock-play. We shall copy a scene from Mr. Mellish, and the same passage from Mr. Salvin.

(MELLISH, p. 122.)

"Scene in the third act; *Mary and Elizabeth.*

"*Mary.* O how shall I begin; how shall I then
So artfully arrange my cautious words
That they may touch, yet not offend, your heart.
Strengthen my words, O God; and take from them
Whate'er might wound: alas, I cannot speak
In my own cause's favor, but I must
Accuse you heavily, and that I would not.
You have not, as you ought, behav'd to me;
For I am a queen like you, yet you have held me
Confin'd in prison; as a suppliant
I came to you, yet you in me insulted
The pious use of hospitality.

B b 2

Despising,

Despising, too, the holy law of nations,
 Immur'd me in a jail, and tore from me
 My friends and servants ; then I was expos'd
 To unbecoming want, and subjected
 To a disgraceful, insolent, tribunal.
 No more of this ; in everlasting silence
 Be buried all the cruelties I suffer'd.
 See, — I will throw the blame of all on fate,
 'Twas not your fault, it was not *my* fault neither :
 An evil spirit rose from the abyss
 To nourish in our hearts the flames of hate
 By which our tender youth had been divided,
 It grew with us, and bad designing men
 Fanned with their ready breath the fatal fire :
 Frantics, enthusiasts, with sword and dagger
 Arm'd the uncall'd for hand ! that is the curse
 Of kings, that they, divided, tear the world
 In pieces with their hatred, and let loose
 The raging furies of each hellish discord !

(Approaching her confidently with a flattering tone.)

Now is no foreign tongue between us, sister,
 We stand now face to face ; now, sister, speak ;
 Name but my crime, I'll fully satisfy you. —
 Alas ! had you but then vouchsafed to hear me,
 As I so earnest sought to meet your eye,
 It never would have come to this, nor would,
 Here in this mournful place, have happen'd now
 This so distressful, this so mournful meeting.

“ *Elizabeth.* My better stars preserv'd me. I was
 warn'd

And laid not to my breast the poisonous adder.
 Accuse not fate ; your own deceitful heart
 It was, the wild ambition of your house : —
 As yet no enemies had passed between us,
 When your imperious uncle, the proud priest,
 Whose shameless hands grasp'd at all crowns, attack'd me
 With unprovoked hostility, and taught
 You, but too docile, to assume my arms,
 To vest yourself with my imperial title,
 And meet me in the lists of mortal strife.
 What arms employed he not to storm my throne ?
 The curses of the priests, the people's sword,
 The dreadful weapons of religious phrenzy.
 Here in my kingdom's peaceful citadel
 He fann'd the flames of civil insurrection ;
 But God is with me, and the haughty priest
 Has not maintain'd the field : the blow was aim'd
 Full at my head ; but yours it is which falls.

“ *Mary.* I am in heaven's hand : you will not sure
 Exert so bloodily the power it gives you.

“ Elizabeth,

" *Elizabeth*. Who shall prevent me? Say, did not your
uncle

Set all the kings of Europe the example,
How to conclude a peace with those they hate?
Be mine the school of Saint Bartholomew!
What's kindred then to me, or law of nations?
The church can break the bands of every duty;
It consecrates the regicide, the traitor;
I only practise what your priests have taught.
Say, then, what surety can be offer'd me
Should I magnanimously loose your bonds?
Say with what lock can I secure your faith
Which by Saint Peter's keys cannot be open'd?
Force is my only surety; no alliance
Can be concluded with a race of vipers.

" *Mary*. O this is but your dismal dark suspicion,
For you have constantly regarded me
But as a stranger and an enemy.
Had you declar'd me heir to your dominions,
As is my right, then gratitude and love
Had fix'd, for you, in me a faithful friend
And kinswoman.

" *Elizabeth*. Your friendship is abroad,
Your house is papacy, the monk's your brother.
Name *you* my successor! the treacherous snare!
That in my life you might seduce my people;
That like a sly Armida, you might catch
The kingdom's generous youthhood in your lewdness;
That all might turn to the new rising sun,
And I —

" *Mary*. O sister! rule your realm in peace;
I give up every claim to these domains.
Alas! the pinnons of my soul are lamed;
Greatness entices me no more; your point
Is gain'd; I am reduced to Mary's shadow.
My noble spirit is at last broke down
In base captivity: — you've done your worst
On me; you have destroy'd me in my bloom.
Now end your work, my sister; speak at length
The word, which to pronounce has brought you hither;
For I will ne'er believe you hither came
To mock unfeelingly your hapless victim: —
Pronounce this word; say, Mary, you are free:
You have already felt my power, learn now
To honour too my generosity.
Say so, and I will take my life, will take
My freedom, as a present from your hands.
One word makes all undone, — I wait for it; —
O let me, let me not too long await it. —
Woe to you, end you not with this one word. —

For should you now, not health-imparting, noble,
 Like a divinity, go from me, sister, —
 Not for this whole rich island, not for all
 The countries which the ocean's self incloses,
 Would I before you stand, as you 'fore me!

" *Elizabeth.* Confess you then at length that you are
 conquer'd?

Are all your schemes exhausted? Is no murderer
 More on the road? Will no adventurer
 Attempt again for you the sad achievement?
 Yes, madam, it is over: you'll seduce
 No more: the world at length has other cares:
 None is ambitious of the dangerous honor
 Of being your fourth husband: you destroy
 Your wooers like your husbands.

" *Mary (starting angrily).* Sister, sister,

O God! God! give me, give me, moderation,

" *Elizabeth (regards her long with a look of proud contempt).*
 Those, then, my Lord of Leicester, are the charms
 Which with impunity no man can view,
 Near which no woman dare attempt to stand?
 In sooth this honor might be cheaply gain'd;
 She who to all is common, may with ease
 Become the common object of applause.

" *Mary.* That is too much!

" *Elizabeth (laughing insultingly).* You show us now
 indeed

Your real face; till now 'twas but the mask.

" *Mary (burning with rage, yet dignified and noble).*

My sins were human, and the fruits of youth;
 Superior force seduced me. I have never
 Denied it, have not hid it. I despised,
 With royal openness, all false appearance.
 The worst of me is known, and I can say
 That I am better than my reputation.
 Woe to you when, in time to come, the world
 Shall draw the robe of honor from your deeds
 With which, a mistress in hypocrisy,
 You've hid the lawless flames of stolen lust,
 Virtue was not your portion from your mother;
 Well know we what it was which brought the head
 Of Anna Boleyn to the bloody block.

" *Shrewsbury (stepping in between both queens).*

O God in heaven! must it come to this?

Is this the moderation, the submission,

My lady? —

" *Mary.* Moderation! I've supported

What human nature can support: farewell
 Lamb-hearted resignation, passive patience
 Fly to thy native heaven; burst at length
 Thy bonds, come forward from thy dreary cave,

In all thy fury, long suppressed rancor; —
And thou, who to the anger'd basilisk
Impart'st the murderous glance, O arm my tongue
With poison'd darts!

"*Shrewsbury*. She is beside herself;
Forgive the mad exasperated woman.

[Elizabeth, speechless for anger, casts enraged looks
at Mary; while Leicester in violent agitation seeks
to lead Elizabeth away.

"*Leicester*. Attend not to her rage: away, away;
From this disastrous place.

"*Mary* (raising her voice). A bastard soils,
Profanes, the English throne. The generous Britons
Are cheated by a juggler, whose whole figure
Is false and painted, heart as well as face.
If right prevailed, you now would in the dust
Before me lie, for I am your rightful monarch.

[Elizabeth hastily quits the stage, the courtiers follow-
ing her in the greatest consternation."

This fine scene, which is scarcely surpassed in any of
Shakspeare's historical tragedies, and which is composed in
a more simple and classical style than Shakspeare always
attained, is thus rendered by Mr. Salvin:

'*Mary*. Wherewith shall I begin, how shall I place
My words in such array, that they may touch
Your heart, not wound it? O God! give my speech
A melting power, and take from it all sting
Of sharpness; though, alas! I cannot plead
My cause, but I must blame you heavily,
And that I would not. You've entreated me
Not justly, for I am a crowned queen,
As you yourself, and kept me prisoner.
I came a suppliant to this land, and you,
Against the rights of hospitality,
Against the law of nations, shut me in
A prison's walls; my servants and my friends,
With barbarous violence, are torn from me.
Then am I given a prey to shameful want,
And basely dragged before a court of law.
Of that no more; — let us forget the past,
And let eternal silence veil my wrongs.
See! I will call it a decree of fate;
No blame attaches or to you or me;
A wicked fiend rose from the pit of hell,
To light the flame of hatred in our hearts,
Which in our youth blighted our harmony.
This hatred grew with us, and wicked men
With poisonous breath stirred up the unhappy flame.
Frantic enthusiasts armed the uncalled hand.

With sword and dagger : — 'tis the unhappy fate
Of crowned heads, that when at variance set,
They loose the furies of each private feud,
And rouse the world to arms. No foreign mouth
Is now between us interposed.

[*Approaches her confidently, and with a caressing tone.*

We stand

At length, before each other, face to face.
Now, sister, speak, say how I've done you wrong,
And I will fully satisfy your mind.
Ah! had you then vouchsafed to see my face,
When I so earnestly entreated you,
It ne'er had come to this, ne'er had this place,
This dismal ominous place, where now we meet,
Witnessed this sad and luckless interview.

' *Elizabeth.* My happy stars preserved me, and forbade,
That I should take an adder to my breast.
— Blame not your fate, but blame your own black heart,
And the untamed ambition of your house.
Nought had arisen our concord to disturb,
When your imperious uncle, the proud priest,
Who with a daring hand attacks all crowns,
Against me denounced war, and fooled your mind
To take the arms of England, to assume
My royal title, and in mortal strife
To meet me in the lists. He tried to arm
Against me every power, the tongue of priests,
The sword of nations, and the dreadful hand
Of the enthusiast crazed with pious dreams.
Even here, in mine own realm, in profound peace,
He tried to rouse rebellion from her den.
But God is on my side, the haughty priest
Is forced to quit the field : — the blow was aimed
Against my head, but yours is doomed to fall.

' *Mary.* I stand before the Almighty. Let me hope
You will not use your power so bloodily.

' *Elizabeth.* Whose hand shall stay me? Your good uncle
taught

A lesson to the kings of all the world,
How they should make peace with their enemies.
Mine be the school of Saint Bartholomew!
What are to me the claims of kindred blood,
The law of nations? Every moral tie
Your church dissolves, it consecrates the breach
Of dutiful allegiance, and it whets
The assassin's knife against anointed kings,
I only practise what your churchmen teach.
And now suppose, that I should generously
Open your prison-doors, and set you free,
Under what lock could I secure your faith,
Not to be opened by St. Peter's keys?

My

My safety lies in force, no covenant
Avails against the treacherous viper brood.

' *Mary.* 'Tis but the dark suspicion of your mind:
You've always looked upon me as a foe
And stranger; had you openly proclaimed
My lawful rights, as heiress to your throne,
The bonds of love and gratitude had knit
My heart to yours for ever.

' *Elizabeth.* Madam, your friends
Reside abroad, the Popedom is your home,
The monk your brother. — I proclaim your rights
As heiress to my crown! Oh! treacherous snare!
That, while I live, you might seduce my people,
And, like a sly Armida, in your nets
Entangle all our noble English youth,
Smit with the magic of your witching charms;
That all should turn them towards the rising sun,
Whilst I remained neglected.

' *Mary.* Reign in peace.
All claims on England freely I resign.
Alas! I feel my soaring spirit tamed,
Greatness no longer charms. Your end is gained,
I now am but the shadow of myself.
Grief and a prison's hardships have subdued
My once proud soul: — your power has done its worst.
You have destroyed me in my youthful bloom.
— Now, sister, let my tortures have an end.
Speak but the word, why you have hither come.
For I will ne'er believe it was your aim
To taunt your victim with inhuman scoffs.
Speak but the word. Say to me, "You are free,
Mary, you now have felt my power, henceforth
Learn to respect my magnanimity."
Say to me this, and I will, as a gift,
My life, my freedom, at your hand receive.
One word — and all's forgot. My anxious ear
Waits for that word. Oh! let me hear it quick.
Ill luck betide you, if you end not with it!
If you do leave me, sister, in despair,
Nor like some glorious godhead, whisper peace
And consolation to my wretched soul,
Not for this island's wealth, not for the wealth
Of all the lands which the wide ocean holds,
Would I for yours exchange my present lot.

' *Elizabeth.* Do you at last confess yourself subdued?
Are all your wiles exhausted? Not one more
Assassin on his road? Will your brave knights
Risk no more desperate ventures for your sake?
— Yes, Mary Stuart, all your hopes are o'er.
No longer can you lead men's hearts astray.

The world has other cares. No man would wish
To lead you for the fourth time to the altar;
You kill your wooers, as you did your husbands.

' *Mary (flying out).* Hah! sister, sister! grant me
patience, Heaven!

' *Elizabeth (looks at her a long time with an expression of
proud contempt).*

Leicester! are these the charms, which no man's eye
With safety can behold, in whose compare
All other female beauties stand eclipsed?
Truly, such fame is cheaply won! to make
Our charms the common theme of all men's praise,
'Tis but to make those charms common to all.

' *Mary.* This is too much!

' *Elizabeth (laughing sarcastically).* You now shew your
true face,

Till now we only saw the outward mask.

' *Mary (glowing with anger, yet with a noble dignity).*

My sins were human, and the faults of youth;
I was seduced by power; I ne'er concealed
My actions in the veil of mystery.

With royal frankness I disdained the cloak
Of falsehood and hypocrisy. The world
Has seen the worst of me, and I with truth
Can say, that I am better than I seem.

Alas for you, when all your secret deeds
Before the world stand openly exposed,
Stript of the specious mantle, which you throw
Over the lewd scenes of your stolen lusts.
Your mother left you not the inheritance
Of modesty: we know what virtues brought
The head of Anna Boleyn to the block.

' *Shrewsbury (stepping between the two queens).* O God in
heaven! and is it come to this!

Is this submission, Mary Stuart, this —

' *Mary.* Submission! I have borne what man could bear!
Farewell, lamb-hearted meekness, back to heaven
Enduring patience, burst at length thy bonds,
Come from thy cavern, long imprisoned hate,
And thou, that to the angry basilisk
Didst give the murderous glance, lay on my tongue
The poisoned arrow. —

' *Shrewsbury.* She's beside herself!
Forgive the furious madness of her speech.

[*Elizabeth, speechless with anger, casts enraged looks
at Mary.*

' *Leicester (in the most violent agitation, trying to lead Eliza-
beth away).* Attend not to her raving words! Away!
From this disastrous place, away!

' *Mary.* The throne
Of England is profaned by bastardy!

The noble-hearted race of England's sons
By a false juggling woman is abused.
— If right prevailed, before me you would lie
Now in the dust, for I am England's queen.

[Elizabeth hastily quits the stage: the lords follow
her in the greatest consternation.]

Both these translations are close, easy, and spirited: but Mr. Mellish evidently approaches nearest to the picturesque simplicity of the German, while Mr. Salvin has adopted a more truly English manner, and his poem reads most like an original. As the relative excellence is so nearly in equipoise, we feel inclined to regret that Mr. Salvin did not employ his time and talents on "The Bride of Messina," or "Wilhelm Tell," rather than on a poem of which the language already possessed so satisfactory a version.

'The Maid of Orleans' is not a drama of equal value. Indeed, the total dissonance of the catastrophe from all historical testimony, and the improbability of many subordinate incidents, (such as Joan falling in love with a young Englishman,) place this among the least fortunate of Schiller's exertions. We shall, however, copy the concluding scene;

'SCENE 4. — *The field of battle. Soldiers with flying banners fill the back-ground. Before them the King and the Duke of Burgundy: Joanna lies in the arms of these two Princes, mortally wounded, without signs of life. They move slowly forwards. Agnes Sorel bursts in.*

'Sorel (*throws herself on the King's bosom*). Oh! you are rescued! you are once more mine.

'King. I am preserved, but at what price thou seest.

[Points to Joanna.

'Sorel. Joanna! heavens! she's dying!

'Burgundy.

All is o'er!

See the departing angel, — how she lies

Easy and quiet as a sleeping babe!

Upon her features plays the peace of heaven: —

Her bosom heaves no longer, but the warmth

Of life still lingers in this gentle hand.

'King. She's gone for ever! She awakes no more.

No more her eye will look on earthly things,

Already does she soar in yonder skies

A radiant angel; she beholds no more

Our grief and penitence.

'Sorel.

She opes her eyes!

She lives!

'Burgundy (*astonished*). How! does she come back from
the grave?

Does she subdue the all-destroyer, death?

See, see! she rises up! she stands!

'Joanna.



' *Joanna (stands quite upright, and looks around)*. Where am I?

' *Burgundy*. With thine own friends, Joanna, with thy people.

' *King*. Thy friends, thy king infold thee in their arms.

' *Joanna (after she has fixt her eyes long upon him)*. No, I am no enchantress! Be assured

I am not.

' *King*. Thou art holy as an angel,
But our dull eye was wrapt in darkest night.

' *Joanna (looks cheerfully around her, and smiles)*. And am I really with mine own again?

No more a wretched outcast and despised?

They do not curse me, they look kindly on me.

— Yes, now I see all things distinct and plain, —

That is my king, those are the royal banners: —

I do not see mine own. — Tell me, where is it?

I dare not come without it: — to my hand

It was entrusted by my heavenly king.

Before his high throne I must lay it down;

I dare to shew it, for I bore it true.

' *King (with averted face)*. Give her the banner.

[*They reach it to her. She stands quite free and upright, with the banner in her hand. The sky is lighted up with a roseate glow.*

' *Joanna*. Behold yon glorious rainbow in the air!

Heaven opens its golden doors, the angelic quires

Stand in their glittering robes; upon her breast

She holds the eternal Son, and smiling points

Her arms towards me. — Yes! I come, I come!

How is't with me? Clouds lift me from the earth,

The heavy mail is changed to buoyant plumes.

I mount, I mount, — earth lessens to my view,

Short is the pang, eternal is the bliss.

[*The banner drops from her hands: — she falls down dead. All stand long in speechless emotion. Upon a slight intimation from the King, all the banners are laid gently upon her, so that she is entirely covered. — The curtain drops.*

Mr. Salvin having proved himself so well qualified to do justice to the master-pieces of the German muse, we hope that this his first effort will prove but the prelude to a series of translations, meritorious alike for their execution and their tendency.

ART. V. *A Grammar of the Latin Language*, by C. G. Zumpt, Professor in the Fredericks' Gymnasium, Berlin. Translated from the German, with Additions, by the Rev. John Kenrick, M.A. 8vo. pp. 390. Mawman, 1823.

ART. VI. *A Latin Grammar*, arranged according to the Principles of the Madras Mode of Instruction; with progressive Lessons annexed to each Rule. For the Use of the Cathedral School, Hereford. By Charles Taylor, D.D. 12mo. pp. 145. Printed at Hereford.

ART. VII. *A Praxis on the Latin Prepositions*, being an Attempt to Illustrate their Origin, Signification, and Government, in the Way of Exercise, For the Use of Schools. By Samuel Butler, D.D. F.R.S., &c. Archdeacon of Derby, and Head Master of Shrewsbury School. 8vo. 6s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

ART. VIII. *A Dictionary of Latin Phrases*; comprehending a Methodical Digest of the various Phrases from the best Authors, which have been collected in all Phraseological Works hitherto published, for the more speedy Progress of Students in Latin Composition. By William Robertson, A.M. of Cambridge. A new Edition, with considerable Additions, Alterations, and Corrections. 8vo. pp. 1023. 15s. bound. Baldwin and Co. 1824.

THE impracticability of making any advancement in the acquisition of learning, without an accurate and perfect knowledge of its fundamental principles, must be sufficiently obvious to those who have ever learnt any thing, or ever considered the subject. To the attainment of this object, nothing is more essentially requisite than the possession of those valuable auxiliaries, lexicons, and grammars. With reference to the former, we are inclined to think that, generally speaking, they are defective, and in a great measure inadequate guides to supply the wants of those who are commencing a course of classical reading; but it is not our intention to enter on a disquisition of the several advantages, the general importance, and the universal value of lexicons; we mean simply to confine ourselves to some animadversions on the nature, structure, and arrangement of the grammatical works now before us, and of their efficacy in advancing the tyro in the cultivation of letters.

Lily's Grammar, which is the primary source whence every work of a similar nature has been derived, may be considered as in many respects extremely faulty; and the Eton Grammar, which has in many instances borrowed several of its leading features, is replete with inaccuracies which each succeeding edition has tended to accumulate. The arrangement
also

also of the Eton Grammar has been deservedly reprehended; and its incorrectness, its crudities, its circumscribed and complicated syntax, have afforded endless subjects of complaint. Much, indeed, is it to be lamented that men of sound learning are so little inclined to devote their time to the amelioration of these elementary books: for it is essential that the young scholar should meet with such facilities and elucidations, *in ipso limine*, as may enable him to continue his classical career with a clear comprehension of his subject, or at least an intimate acquaintance with its principles. Yet how is this to be attained unless those who are thoroughly versed in every branch of classical lore will contribute their valuable aid in digesting and arranging such a work, as shall combine perspicuity in the developement of general principles with copiousness of examples, and still keep in view the brevity which is essential to younger readers?

That such a plan is perfectly feasible is demonstrated by the production of Professor Zumpt; which, without unnecessary periphrastic remarks, is incomparably more diffuse and abundant in its explanations than any similar book in general use at our public schools. Let us, for instance, collate the observations on the fifth declension of simple nouns as given in the Eton Grammar, and in that of Lily, with that of Zumpt. In the Eton Grammar, we are merely told that the "fifth declension makes the genitive and dative cases singular to end in *ei*;" in Lily, after the terminations of the declension, we have something that is a little, and but a little, more explicit; we are informed that "all nouns of the fifth declension are of the feminine gender, excepting *dies* and *meridies*." M. Zumpt, however, conveys a much clearer and more satisfactory state of the case. He tells us that "the only three words in the declension which admit of a plural are *dies*, *res*, and *species*, and that Cicero even condemns the use of the latter beyond the singular. Such other words as *acies*, *facies*, *effigies*, *series*, and *spes*, are merely found in the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural: other words, as their signification would denote, have no plural. The genitive and dative singular have a short *e* before the final vowel, when a consonant precedes, as *fidēi*, *rēi*, but long when a vowel precedes, as *diēi*, *maciēi*." An excellent distinction also is made as to the use of the masculine gender in the word *dies* indiscriminately, which is illustrated by quotations from Cicero. Thus, when it is equivalent to length of time, the word is feminine, "*ipsa dies me consolatur*;" and in the date of a letter, "*antiquior dies adscripta fuit*." The common rule, therefore, that *dies* is masculine, when it is spoken of a specified

specified day, and feminine when used of the duration of time, is not sufficiently exact.' Such observations as these are calculated to be of great service; because the mind of a child early imbued with such comprehensive information will gain as much in a few days, as in the ordinary course would demand three or four years.

The subject of declensions has been in all our grammars most imperfectly and superficially explained. A boy is frequently at a loss to comprehend the declension to which a word belongs; and this difficulty occurs in a tenfold degree in the third declension, which is well known to be the most complicated and extensive in the Latin language: yet the Eton Grammar merely says that "it makes the genitive case to end in *is*;" and Lily is not more explicit. The superiority of M. Zumpt's plan is almost self-evident. He lays down certain general principles, and thoroughly clears away the mass of rubbish which incumbers the usual system.

'The nominative,' says Zumpt, 'ends in the vowels in *a, e, i, y, o*; the consonants in *c, l, n, r, s*, and *x*. Those in *a* are of Greek origin, and make *atis* in the genitive, as *poema, poematis*. Those in *e* change *e* into *is*, *mare, maris*. The words in *i* and *y* are Greek, and partly indeclinable, as *gummi*, partly have, as *feminae, is*, and *vis* in the genitive, as *sinapi, sinapis; misy, misyis; misy, misyos*; only the compounds in *meli* have *melites* in the genitive, after the Greek. Those in *o* (common) add *nis* to form the genitive, sometimes only lengthening the *o*, sometimes changing it into *i*. Of the former kind are *carbo, latro, leo, liga, pavo, prædo, sermo*, and all words in *io*, as *ratio, passio*, &c.

Thus each form and each feature of this declension are systematically analyzed.

We trust that our readers will be enabled by these brief specimens to discover the importance and evident superiority of Professor Zumpt's Grammar, in the declensions, over those which are generally adopted. The plan of appropriating, in illustration of those declensions, words which are either purely Greek or of Greek origin, is we think extremely judicious. Thus all Greek words terminating in *e, as, and es*, are ascribed with great propriety to the first declension; as *grammaticæ, epitomæ, Æneis, Midas, Anchises, Anagnostes*, &c.; and again Greek words in *os*, and neuters in *ov*, which make *ov* in the genitive, as *Homerus* and *museum*, or in *er*, as *Alexander* and *Teucer*, are placed in their natural position at the conclusion of the second declension. Another advantage is derivable from M. Zumpt's Grammar; viz. the perspicuous manner in which he describes the genders of the declensions. This has always been in our grammars the "*scandalum offensionis*,"

sionis," an insurmountable difficulty which has produced a mutual embarrassment to teachers and learners: yet here, by a slight attention to the general rule affixed to each declension, the inconvenience is instantly obviated.

We must not, however, dwell longer on this elementary part of an elementary work, and must consequently plunge at once "*in medias res*," or, in plainer terms, proceed to that portion of the book which is devoted to the syntax; a most important feature of grammar, and demanding the most earnest consideration. It has been frequently observed that the syntax of the Eton Grammar is so inartificially and indefinitely constructed, that even its first rule is incomprehensible until the learner has made considerable advancements beyond it. This is a disadvantage which, from time immemorial, has been a topic of complaint. Precision is of the very essence of an elementary book: every rule should be exemplified in the most simple and perspicuous form; and every proposition should be so closely allied to its antecedent, that the learner may step by step be conducted onwards, until he acquires as intimate an acquaintance with the construction of a complicated sentence as with one of the simplest structure.

Several rules occur in our grammars which it is totally impossible for a boy to comprehend, in consequence of the variety of examples which anticipate the rules themselves. Numerous instances might be cited, in order to verify our remark: but we shall abstain from specifying any, except when it is absolutely requisite for the purpose of drawing a comparison between our own grammars and that of the present German Professor. In the first instance, it is worthy of remark that M. Zumpt invariably proceeds with his rules, and the immediate bearings on them, *seriatim*; and in such a manner as to accustom the learner fully to comprehend the force of one example, before he is hurried forwards into the complicated varieties of others, which must appear, on so slight an acquaintance, mysterious and inexplicable.

Section 66. contains throughout much valuable matter, and defines in the most sensible and acute manner the connection between 'subject and predicate;' a point which should be thoroughly comprehended, before a pupil attempts to make any farther advances in the succeeding examples. It is really curious to compare this first rule of syntax with the vague and defective observations which we find in the Eton Grammar, under the head of "*Verbum et Nominativus*;" a circumstance the more to be considered, because this is the vital source itself of the existence of grammar. It is not, however, in one but in almost every instance that M. Zumpt displays the

super-

superiority of his system, and affords an additional proof, if one were wanting, that his country not merely produces the most eminent poets, philologists, dramatists, critics, and metaphysicians, but, in the proud examples of Scheller, Bröder, Grotendorf, &c. &c., stands unrivalled in the arrangement and composition of grammar. It is probable, however, that some persons will condemn the Grammar of M. Zumpt, on the ground that it introduces several striking innovations, and is marked by its departure from the old and accustomed systems. Yet these innovations must be gratefully welcomed by all who, *πατριᾶς χάριν*, are occupied with initiatory and elementary scholarship. We wish particularly to call the attention of our readers to the section relative to

‘ Passives denoting election or appointment, as *creor, eligor, designor, renuncior, declaror*: — *Dux à Romanis electus est Quintus Fabius*: — *Consul omnibus centuriis Sulla renunciatus est*: — *Clodius tribunus plebis est designatus*. Also, passives denoting estimation or opinion, as *Credor, existimor, habeor, judicor, numeror, putor; videor, reperior, deprehendor, censeor*: — *Similes parentibus filii plerumque creduntur*: — *Hæc consideremus quæ faciunt ii qui habentur boni*: — *Divinatio est earum rerum quæ fortuitæ putantur prædictio*, &c.

It must be manifest that these rules are embodied from the Greek, though that ‘which denotes election or appointment’ is perfectly original. With regard to the two others, the one importing name or title, and the other signifying estimation or opinion, they may be found in our own Latin grammars, but badly expressed, and in a much more complicated form. The following remark is also deserving of attention: ‘There are other verbs, as *do, addo, adjungo, adscribo, accio, peto, sumo*, that take a substantive after them, which is not so properly the predicate as an apposition to the subject. In English, *as, or for*, is usually inserted to mark this relation. *Serous puero comes adjungitur*: — *Regi augur assessor datur*.’ — Before we conclude our observations on this part of the work, we cannot refrain from extracting the subsequent note, which appears to us of considerable utility:

‘ Section 71. Rule 11. The point of time is expressed by the ablative, without the preposition *in*; as *Quâ nocte natus Alexander est, eadem Dianæ Ephesiæ templum deflagavit*. — (Note.) By day, by night, is expressed by *interdiu noctu*: but the ablatives *die* and *nocte* are not uncommon. The two phrases may be combined, *die ac nocte, die noctuque, nocte et interdiu*. In the evening is *vesperi, or vespere*, from the old word *vesper, vesperis*. — In *tempore, or tempore* alone, is used for “in good time.” — *Ludis* is used without a preposition, as denoting a point of time,

for *tempore ludorum*; *Latinis* for *tempore feriarum Latinarum*; *gladiatoribus* for *tempore ludorum gladiatorum*; — *comitiis* is less frequent. — *Bello* was said, as well as *in bello*, especially if joined with an adjective or genitive, as *bello Latino*, or *bello Latinorum*.

Although we omitted to notice the subject of prepositions in their natural order, it is but just to observe that perhaps no portion of the work is more skilfully managed: for the almost endless variety of examples adduced to illustrate the rule, the abundance of separate significations attached to each of the prepositions, and especially the admirable sources whence those significations are derived, would in themselves intitle this Grammar to take a very high rank among its coëvals or predecessors. The only animadversion, to which it may be considered as obnoxious, is an evident partiality for refinement on points which are *per se* sufficiently explicit; together with its useless disquisitions on subjects of a comparatively trivial nature. These, however, are slight defects, compared with its countervailing, and, we may add, unexampled excellences. From indiscriminate eulogy we are always averse: but this is a production which cannot be too strongly recommended.

Mr. Kenrick, the ingenious translator of the German original, states in his preface that the work has received several additions which have much increased its size; and that he ought in candour to have distinguished the original matter which he has introduced. He also remarks in a note that the section on the Roman reckoning is adscititious. From whatever source the information may have been derived, it is surely of the highest importance. Some knowledge of the Roman system of reckoning is very necessary, not merely for the purpose of comprehending the idioms derived from it, but from its own peculiar and intrinsic consequence. Every body is aware of the simple mode of computing time among the Romans; and that the calendar, in its number of months and of the days in each month, corresponded with our own, but that, instead of reckoning in one uninterrupted series from the first to the thirty-first, there were three periods from which the days were enumerated. The names of *Calends*, *Nones*, and *Ides*, “familiar to our mouths as household gods,” need no comment: but it may be as well to notice ‘that, in the months of March, May, July, and October, (which may be remembered by the word *omni*,) the nones were on the seventh day, in all other months on the fifth.’ There are other points with which the generality of pupils are not so well acquainted; and on some the author shall speak for himself.

‘As the Romans called the second day before the calends, &c. *tertio*, the third *quarto*, &c. it is necessary in accommodating their dates

dates to our calendar to lessen by *one* the number of the day, according to the Roman reckoning, and then subtract it from the number of the day on which, in that month, the *ides* or *nones* fall. For example, *iv Non. Januariæ* is assigned as a date; the *nones* falling on the fifth, I subtract from 5 ($5-1=$) 4, which leaves 2, or the second of January, for the day in question. — *vii Idus Quintiles*; the *ides* of July falling upon the fifteenth, I must subtract six from fifteen, which leaves nine; consequently the day in question is the ninth of July. In reckoning the days before the *calends*, as they are not the last day of the current month but the first of the following, it will be necessary also to add one to the number of days in the month. Thus *iii Cal. Januariæ* is ($31+1$) $32-(3-1) 2=30$ December. — A shorter practical rule is to add *one* to the number of the *nones* and *ides*, and *two* to the number of days in the month for the *calends*, and then to subtract the number of the day; *ex. gr.* to find the Roman date of the 21st of July: $33-21 =$ *xii Cal. Sextiles*. — In the times of the republic, July was called *Quintilis*, and August, *Sextilis*. The names *Julius* and *Augustus* were given in honor of the *Cæsars*.

We wish that we had room to transcribe the mode assigned by the Romans to the date of the number of days preceding the *calends*, &c.: but the short remark on the Roman leap-year deserves and indeed absolutely demands a place. ‘In the Roman leap-year, the 24th of February (*ante diem vi Cal. Mart.*) was twice reckoned; hence the intercalated day was called *Dies Bissextus*, and the leap-year itself *Annus Bissextus*.’ — In the remainder of this valuable work, the author considers the reckoning of money, and fractional parts; and the two concluding sections are appropriated to quantity and accentuation. They do not in the slightest degree derogate from the general merits of the book, which is far superior to any existing grammar that we know.

After the observations which we have just made, and our unqualified commendations of Professor Zumpt’s labors, it becomes a painful and somewhat invidious task to notice a publication which cannot lay claim to an equal share of applause. Yet every attempt to convey elementary instruction is meritorious, and so far Dr. Taylor has a claim to public favor. His Grammar is composed on the principles of the Madras system, or progressive mode of instruction: the rules of the Eton Grammar are curtailed; and, with the exception of parallel English instances, it is little more than a transcript or abridgment of Lily. It may be remembered that a grammar on the principles of progression was published at the Charter-House: but it was in many parts so fanciful, and in others so complicated and enigmatical, that its existence could not, we imagine, be much more than ephemeral. The

present attempt is more successful, undoubtedly; and the author merits considerable praise for the candor with which he admits that his aim has not been novelty but utility: as also that he is much indebted for the assistance that Lily, the Eton, and the Port-Royal Grammars have afforded. Still, making every allowance for the Doctor's frankness, we can only consider his work as a cento of adaptations, which are any thing but original. Thus, the Eton Prosody has supplied his rules for quantity, and Mr. Seale's treatise on Greek Metres has been not less serviceable in the department allotted to versification. The book, however, is written in a style of primitive simplicity; and the rules are given in so intelligible a form, that it may be put with the greatest security into the hands of a child of tender age: but, as a general grammar of reference, to scholars at a more advanced period, we fear that its utility will be lamentably circumscribed.

The first portion of grammar must, from its very nature, treat on subjects of the simplest form; and Dr. Taylor has ingeniously contrived, even in his very first page, to blend information of consequence respecting the quantity of Latin words with the usual trite remarks on the formation of language. We are sorry, however, to perceive that no endeavour has been made to facilitate the subject of declensions. We have already said, in a preceding part of this article, that the subject of declensions, especially the *third*, is most momentous; and that it is a stigma on our grammars that their remarks on this branch of the question are so scandalously defective. Such defects are but poorly supplied by Dr. Taylor. His definition of a verb, however, is marked by a happy conciseness. 'A verb (he says) is the chief word in every sentence, and expresses either the action or being of a thing. Some verbs are transitive, *i. e.* their action passes on to a following noun, as "I break a stick," "I build a house." Some are intransitive, or neuter, *i. e.* their action does not pass on to a following noun, as, "I run," "water flows," "the sun shines," "the stick breaks," &c.' Instead of the long tirade concerning moods and tenses, we have the following remarks: 'There are six moods; the indicative, which indicates; the imperative, which commands; the potential, which signifies power; the optative, which expresses a wish; the subjunctive, which is joined to another verb, and is attended by some conjunction, or indefinite word; and the infinitive.' On tenses the author is equally laconic. 'Tense is a variation in the termination of verbs, used to express a variety of time.' This we consider as excellent, because

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it clearly conveys, in a very few words, that which occupies usually an entire page, and which after all is but clumsily explained.

Every example that is cited to illustrate the several rules of syntax should invariably be selected, we think, from writers of the Ciceronian age, or at least from the purest periods of Roman literature: but it too frequently happens that the instances which are adduced, besides being extracted from the very worst sources, are often adopted from the later writers, whose latinity is not merely impure but almost barbaric: — nay it is not uncommon to see the modern authors or compilers of grammar introduce a composition of their own, a sort of non-descript and indefinable language, partaking more of their mother-tongue than of antiquity. We fear that the present reverend author can scarcely claim an exemption from this censure; though we must do him the justice to admit that he has been more sparing of his own latinity than very many of his predecessors. With regard to the innovation which Dr. Taylor has admitted into his Grammar, by giving the examples alternately in Latin and English, and which thus serve as an exercise to the pupil in either language, we do not by any means object to it. The Doctor, however, has evidently bestowed his chief attention on the arrangement of syntax; and indeed we may infer that this was his primary object in composing the work. His labors have certainly been useful, as the rules of the *Eton Grammar* are simplified and compressed in his Grammar: but its general tenor does not altogether please us. We are at a loss to conceive on what grounds the Doctor considers his first rule, viz. ‘when two substantives of different significations come together, the latter is put in the genitive case,’ as the basis of syntax. Surely, as there can be no perfect sentence without a verb, the rule which should stand in the first order is that which has for ages, both in Greek and Latin grammars, been placed foremost in the construction of sentences. Of the plan of giving the rules in English, instead of Latin, we are not enamored, nor can we discover its utility. If the pupil be required to translate the Latin examples which are affixed to the rule, it would be equally easy for him to become acquainted with the rule itself in the same language, as well as beneficial by adding to his stock of Latin words.

We think, also, that Dr. Taylor would have been more judicious if he had excluded from his brief treatise the final portion on versification; which is not merely inexplicable to children, but would prove of some difficulty to those of more advanced age. Had he confined his work to an elucidation

of the obscurities, and to a systematic alteration of the tautological absurdities, with which our grammars are disgraced, he would have been better employed than by dabbling in the self-created and imaginary mysteries of Horatian versification.

The name of Dr. Butler stands so deservedly eminent among the literati of the present day, that we hail with great pleasure any work which emanates from his pen. The present subject of our remarks is intitled 'A Praxis on the Latin Prepositions.' We are not aware of any similar existing work; but the desideratum will be no longer felt, since the execution of this treatise is such as to intitle it to especial commendation. Its author must have bestowed incessant attention on it; and indeed the task of collecting instances sufficient to illustrate the immense variety of prepositions, with the interminable bearings on them, appears truly appalling. Dr. B. is not only a sound scholar, but, as Lingo indignantly observed, "the master of scholars;" and his experience in scholastic tuition is so extensive, that it is scarcely possible to select any person better qualified for executing so useful a book as the 'Praxis' under consideration. The plan on which it is constructed is similar to that of the work so well-known by the title of "Valpy's Exercises;" except that in the one case the sentences are selected for the express purpose of illustrating examples on grammar generally, while in the other the passages cited are simply given as exercises on prepositions. The phraseology is sufficiently intelligible in most instances; and, wherever any difficulty does arise, elucidations are added at the bottom of the page. It is the object of the treatise to investigate the origin and primary sense of the numerous prepositions, thence to deduce their secondary and more abstruse significations, and finally to confirm and illustrate such remarks by examples derived from the purest sources, and most approved classic writers: so that the pupil may have an exercise which will not only improve him in translation, but also give him considerable practice in the peculiar phraseology and more select and recondite idioms of the Latin language. If the version be not elegant, it is at least always nervous and forcible; and, in general, it is as literal as the various distinctions between the two languages will allow; while the sentences are so invariably easy as to render the translation of them a matter of no apprehension to the learner. If at any time a difficulty occurs, the explanations are given in the clearest form, without encouraging the inherent and systematic indolence of a school-boy, or destroying the great ends of improvement, which should be the sole and almost vital endeavor of a grammatical writer.

Dr. B.'s definition of prepositions is extremely good. They are particles or fragments of words prefixed to nouns or pronouns, and denoting their relations to other objects in point of locality, cause, or effect; and in a note he thus continues :

‘ Strictly speaking, all prepositions, when applied to *material* objects, express modes of motion or rest, as *à me* expresses *motion from me*; *in loco*, *quiescence in a particular place*. When applied to abstract terms, or mental qualities, they may often be considered to express the relation between cause and effect; into which, however, the idea of motion necessarily enters. Thus *præ metu expalluit* signifies that fear was the cause, and paleness the effect; *per fraudem amisit* signifies that fraud was the cause, and loss the effect, &c.

Prepositions are discoverable in every distinct and varied branch of language except in interjections; and in their several significations, whether used in connection with nouns, pronouns, verbs, participles, adverbs, or conjunctions, they tend to increase, diminish, or change the primitive signification of the word to which they are allied. The variety of meaning which each preposition asserts to itself is really infinite; and the “never ending, still beginning,” ramifications of which it is susceptible render the subject deserving of the most serious attention.—We congratulate Dr. Butler on the accomplishment of this excellent work, while we felicitate the rising generation on the very important acquisition which is thus made to their scholastic furniture; and we trust that the book has already found easy ingress into all our great schools. Boys in general are too apt to consider prepositions as very unimportant; and they imagine, if they are informed of the case of the noun which is dependant and consequent on the preposition, that they have gleaned sufficient information: but let them peruse Dr. Butler's treatise with attention, and they will be convinced of their error.

We must be sparing in our extracts from this Praxis, but we may transcribe one or two of the author's definitions.

‘ *Circa, circum.* This preposition signifies *approximation*, and *comprehension* of time, place, person, or number, and is derived from the Greek *κίρκος*, a circle, whence also the Latin words *circus* and *circulus*.—

‘ *Cis.* This preposition expresses limitation of space, from the spot where we are supposed to be to some distance not exceeding the nearest side of a certain boundary, and is often opposed to *trans* and *ultra*, which signify excess on the other side of it; as Gallia Cispadana signified Gaul on the same side of the Po as

Rome, in opposition to Gallia Transpadana, or Gaul *on the other side of it*. It is usually prefixed to proper names of places, as rivers, mountains, &c.; in which respect it differs from *citra*, which is used more promiscuously, as *citra cruorem*, on this side, i. e. *short of*, blood.

Dr. B. is of opinion that this word is derived from the Greek *κείω*; and cites Vossius for his authority. As we are not aware of any thing which is more similar to it, we are content to let this pass: but we must object to the fanciful addition that *cis* takes its origin from *κείω*, to cut off, or divide. We see not the slightest affinity between the word *cis*, on this side, and *κείω*, to divide; and we are not more satisfied with *trans* being deduced from *περαν*, by the substitution of the letter *τ* instead of *π*. We know that a transposition, or addition, or subtraction of a letter is frequently made, as in *super* from *υπερ*, *sub* from *υπο*, *clam* from *κλεμμα*, *palam* from *παλαμη*, &c.: but, in these instances, the sense and meaning are so intimately connected, that a metathesis is not merely natural but evident. We cannot, however, admit that, in the instance of *trans*, the derivation is plausible; any more than we are inclined to allow that *cum* can have any connection with *αμε*, when such a word as *συν* is at hand to supply a correct etymology.

It is however but justice to confess that, in many of his definitions and derivations, Dr. Butler has made ample amends for any overstrained and gratuitous notions of other words. We would particularly instance the word "*contra*:" of which none of the grammarians, in the multiplicity of their conjectures, have adduced a single etymon that has been satisfactory. Dr. B. conceives it to be the ablative case of the obsolete adjective *conterus*, in the same manner that *citra*, *extra*, *infra*, *intra*, and *supra*, are the ablatives of *citer*, *exterus*, *inferus*, *interus*, and *superus*. The adjective *conterus* is easily derived from *contero*; and as the preposition *contra* signifies *against*, there must be something opposed to it; making therefore every allowance for the antiquity of the adjective, we obtain a very apposite signification. — The etymology of the preposition *coram* we are also inclined to approve. It is evidently borrowed from *cum* or *con*, united with *os*, *oris*; and, as the signification of it is expressly confined to the actual presence of the person before whom an action is performed, the derivation may be considered as good. Dr. Butler is of opinion that the word should be written *corim*, or *corim*, because *clam* was originally spelt *calim*: but we do not see the necessity for this, any more than for pronouncing "*coram Rege*," "*orim cum Rege*," which he considers as the real grammatical construction.

... Respecting the origin of the preposition *de*, the ground is highly controversial. Many persons have derived it from *dis*, which is again borrowed from the Greek word *δια*; while others imagine *idew* to be its primary root. It is however a matter of little importance, as the preposition *de* is susceptible of so many significations, that in some instances *dis*, or *δια*, will convey the more adequate meaning; and in others, as in senses of privation, diminution, or division, *idew* will be the more exact.

We presume that it is needless to remark that all the English sentences in this volume are admirably adapted to illustrate the several prepositions; and that, if they are read with the attention which they justly merit, they will prove of great service to the pupil. — Here, then, we must part with the enlightened and erudite author; assuring him, in so doing, that his book is excellently calculated to fill the hiatus which for so many years has existed in this department of scholarship.

The fourth and last work of an elementary nature, which now presents itself to our notice, is a new, revised, and improved edition of Robertson's Dictionary of Latin Phrases. Our learned readers are of course well acquainted with the *Lexicon Ciceronianum* of Nizolius; and this is a book of a similar nature, excepting that the phrases of Nizolius are simply those which are discoverable in the writings of Cicero, while Robertson takes an unlimited extent, though he consults only the purest and most classic sources, Cicero, Tacitus, Virgil, Sallust, Ovid, Terence, Plautus, &c. This dictionary renders the access to Latin peculiarities much more simple and easy, as it is enriched with thousands of the best phrases borrowed from the most approved authors, and is consequently of great value to students in the composition of Latin. The present editor seems to have brought to the task which he undertook not only a sound judgment, but an extent and accuracy of investigation which redound much to his credit in the performance of a duty that must have been, to say the least, irksome and tedious. His selections are clear, succinct, and perspicuous, and his improvements on the original work are manifold.

Such being the nature of this Dictionary of Latin Phrases, it will be easily seen that it possesses considerable utility: but in no respect, perhaps, is this utility more conspicuous than in the mass of excellent quotations which are collected, and with which it would be the labor of many years for the student to make himself acquainted in the works of the respective authors. No book extant can so materially assist a

boy in the composition of Latin prose; and every phrase has at least twelve or fourteen synonyms, so that he must indeed be fastidious who is unable from so many sources to adopt one satisfactory selection. The editor has confined himself to the formation of a dictionary almost exclusively for a peculiar class of boys; viz. those in the middle or upper forms of public schools; and, keeping this object steadily in view, a compilation has been made which not merely precludes critical reprehension, but deserves warm commendation. No work intended for the use of schools, and therefore constructed on circumscribed principles, should adduce authorities from writers of whom little is known except by a few desultory fragments, or perhaps whose very names are but slightly appreciated by mature scholars. This is a fault unhappily of too frequent occurrence in our very best lexicons and dictionaries, but it is one from which the work before us is fortunately exempt. — Bacon has admirably remarked that “knowledge is power;” and surely, then, no species of knowledge can be more valuable than an attempt to preserve, and inculcate, a vast variety of those phrases in which our classic ancestors were accustomed to convey their thoughts, their intentions, and their experience. We have already said that every sentiment is illustrated by several separate significations; and we will select the first sentence which presents itself, that our readers may form their own judgment on the utility of the book.

Arts have not their due honor; — Learning is not esteemed as it ought to be; — *artes merito honore carent; non, ut deberent, honestæ sunt; non quanti deberent, æstimantur; non quo deberent, quo æquo essent loco sunt; non quem deberent locum obtinent, non admodum in honore sunt; dignitatis, æstimationis, honoris, loci non habent satis, exigui pretii sunt, parvi sunt, haud magni reputantur bonæ artes; bonis artibus honor non est, locus non est, honor non tribuitur; bonæ artes honore vacant, dignitate carent, non coluntur, jacent, minime vigent.*

Thus, in so short a space as the preceding, we have eight several modes of rendering the same passage; and very frequently twenty-five and even thirty synonyms, of equal length with those which we have quoted, are adduced to aid the pupil in the art of composition. We trust that our readers will concur in our opinion, that this is a most satisfactory publication; and that, with so valuable an assistant at his elbow, the tyro can have no excuse if he falls into the habit of writing incorrect latinity. As every phrase is similarly illustrated, it is needless to extract more from this Dictionary; and it is enough to say that the sentences are almost all well selected, and that the whole is not merely accurate and comprehensive,
but

but highly instructive, and even entertaining. In the execution of his design, the editor has been compelled to follow the track of various learned men, whose labors have been directed with great success to the attainment of classical phraseology. Their compositions have evidently been his model; and, as their researches have been of considerable service to him, he has in his turn elucidated many of their obscurities, and imitated their excellences. All the compositions of a similar nature, which have hitherto issued from the press, are in many respects unsatisfactory. They have either been contracted and deficient in information which was really necessary, or they have been distended to an unnatural size for the purpose of introducing protracted and unconnected sentences from writers whose authorities are worthless. The present work, however, has accomplished that which preceding writers had left in an incomplete state, and combines the essence of their remarks with much original matter hitherto uncollected.

ART. IX. *The Jamaica Planter's Guide*; or, a System for planting and managing a Sugar Estate, or other Plantations in that Island, and throughout the British West Indies in general. Illustrated with interesting Anecdotes. By Thomas Roughley, nearly Twenty Years a Sugar Planter in Jamaica. 8vo. pp. 420. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

MR. ROUGHLEY has delivered, in this volume, a very copious code of instructions for the management and culture of a sugar-estate; and he has shewn throughout great good sense, with as much practical humanity as is consistent with the continuance of the present driving system of slave-labor. Our opportunities of information, however, do not enable us to appreciate the numerous details of plantation-economy into which he has been necessarily led; and our readers, probably, will not regret that they are thus deprived of an analytical account of the work before us: — but it possesses a higher interest with the philanthropist, who has not yet abandoned all hope of ameliorating the condition of the poor Negro; in as much as it affords information respecting the present state of society in Jamaica, and the condition of the slave-population. The management of the estates of absentee-proprietors, and even of some merchants in that island, is chiefly intrusted to resident agents or attorneys; a large proportion of whom appear, from the statements of Mr. R., to be among the most worthless of mankind.

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‘The major part,’ he says, ‘or five-sixths of this class of representatives, are men who are engrossed by their own interested speculations, attentive to what will promote their own selfish views, making every other object within their grasp subservient to their ambition. Though perhaps they are too ignorant to be planters, they are too ostentatious, proud, and supine, to contribute to the good of their constituents. Nor is it the least of their defects that they clandestinely prefer the interest of a mortgagee or affluent merchant (who may possibly have some secret design upon the estate) to that of the owner. This is sometimes done, because such a mortgagee or merchant, becoming powerfully connected in the island, may be the means not only of continuing the attorney in his agency, but of advancing his influence, authority, and wealth, by procuring for him commissions for the management of other estates. By this means, a fruitful West India island is converted into a devastated mortgage. Sometimes it happens that the attorney, consulting his pleasure, fixes his residence on one of the estates of his constituents, with far greater regard to save expense to himself, than his absent employer. He looks about for a healthy eligible situation; a large house well furnished; sensible, clean, handsome slaves as servants; grounds delightful and pleasing to his eye; a flower-garden to refresh his weary senses; a kitchen-garden to furnish his table; but, above all, where small stock are numerous and thriving, that he may have an abundant supply for his own consumption without expense. He cultivates luxuriant grass-pieces, and corn for his horses and cattle, without any deduction from his per centage on the sale of the crops. Thus his establishment is secretly, and with mercenary meanness, supported: the proprietor of the estate in this manner contributing to his aggrandisement. The contribution thus levied is not less, considering all circumstances, than 700% a year. What, however, is still more surprising, is, that this very person, who thus reposes upon the substance of his constituents, in superabundant plenty, very often does not know the limits of the estate he is empowered to manage, or even a cane-piece within a musket-shot of the house he inhabits. He cannot tell whether it is attached to that or any other property. The poor overseer, dependent on his will, is in constant jeopardy, and his mind frequently thereby estranged from the proper duties of his station. If any deficiency is discovered in the supplies required for the house or retinue of the attorney, he is reproved by harsh notes, and supposititious faults are imputed to him. Whether an ample crop has been taken off, and a promising one is advancing, with little loss of slaves and stock (the true criterion of good management) signifies little. This meritorious, industrious, servant, is discharged, and his place filled up with perhaps an obsequious novice.

With a view to remedy the evils of this system of island-agency, Mr. R. proposes to employ travelling agents, who shall alternately visit and inspect the estates, and return to Europe,

Europe, carrying with them ample documents of their proceedings, and of the condition and prospects of the estates.

Mr. R. has considered at great length the qualifications of an overseer, and has branded with merited infamy the conduct which too many of them unfortunately pursue.

• The overseer must keep the slaves strictly to their work, yet not imposing on them unusual hours, or inflicting punishment for every trifling offence; but when punishment for crimes is necessary, to temper it with prudent mercy. He must be attentive to their real wants, not suffering them to tease him with their trifling complaints, or tamper with him by their arts, but promptly satisfy them, by enquiring into their serious grievances. Above all things, he must not encourage the spirit of Obea in them (which is horrible), or dishearten them by cohabiting with their wives, annulling thereby their domestic felicities. He must not suffer their provision-grounds to be neglected, trespassed on, or ruined, or their houses to be out of repair or uncomfortable; for it very often happens, that well disposed slaves by such freedoms taken with their wives, their well-established grounds ruined by thieves or cattle, their domestic quiet and comfort intruded upon, or their houses rendered uninhabitable by storm or casualty, become runaways. Their conduct influences others, till at last the strength of the estate vanishes, the evil becomes notorious, and the plantation, of course, becomes neglected.

Then comes the real history of most Negro-insurrections:

• The magistrates are then obliged to take this growing evil into serious consideration. Hunting parties are sent out (perhaps with little success) to bring in the fugitives; martial law is at last proclaimed throughout the diseased district; all sorts of people are harassed; public trials are instituted; some of the runaways are never caught; others who are brought in undergo trial, and are convicted and sentenced to death or transportation for life. All these proceedings might be avoided by well timed, prompt attention at the beginning of the evil. The overseer loses his character and situation by such misconduct. He seldom regains them, but often sinks into contemptuous disrepute; or if he maintains them, it is by the stern will of an all-commanding resident island-agent, who has promoted and sanctioned this odious and cruel policy. But what is still more intolerable, still more heart-breaking, and calls loudly for public justice, is when those very provision-grounds, those very Negro-houses, which are nursed and reared by the painful toil of the Negroes, by months and years of indefatigable labour, those temples of their present and future happiness, are, by the despotic mandate of a ruthless resident island-agent, contrary to the island-laws, desperately entered into by a gang to his purpose, the provisions destroyed, the houses with their contents pulled down, levelled to the ground, and burnt. It may easily be conjectured what will be the consequence,

quence, when the slave views his beggared starving family, his comforts fled, his happiness annihilated and expiring.

In illustration of such atrociously wicked conduct, which could not have existence but in conjunction with slavery, Mr. R. tells the tragical tale of a brutal overseer, who fell a sacrifice to the vengeance of his tortured slaves.

‘Some Mulatto slaves upon the property, as tradesmen, with others, whom this overseer was in the habit of unceasingly carping at and punishing, for what he thought neglect of duty, upon being threatened, betook themselves to flight, in order to save themselves from his resentment. He then applied himself to the diabolical, ruinous plan of inducing them to return home, by rooting up their provision-grounds, and pulling down their houses in despite of the island-laws: they still remained out for some time, till the overseer became somewhat sick, and they thought the storm abated. His disorder became less, and their fears returned, as they thought him implacable, — and they conspired to put him to death with secrecy and despatch. He was of considerable stature, with great strength. In the dead of the night, when his dwelling-house was divested of its servants except one female, who either knew and approved of their design, or they enticed out of the room, these Mulatto men-slaves associated with others who came there. The overseer was asleep in bed with a young child of his own, little thinking of, or ever surmising his approaching fate. The noise of their entry startled him: he grasped a hanger that was near his bed; but before he could see them, or make an effort with it for his delivery, they rushed on him in a body. A violent scuffle ensued for some minutes. After knocking some of them down, he often plunged for his escape, but they still pressing upon him, he at length became exhausted. They then caught him by the legs, threw a rope over his head, round his neck; and while some dragged him by the legs, others swung the rope round the bed-post, and thus, by pulling contrary ways, they soon strangled him. They then deliberately went to his trunk, took out clean linen, and after washing him and the room from blood, or any thing that might cause discovery of the murder, they put on him the clean linen, and laid him in the bed again. They then retired, congratulating one another on thus effecting their design, as they thought, without discovery, and with impunity.’

The murder was discovered, but not till the lapse of some months: conviction of the perpetrators took place, on the evidence of the female servant and one of the conspirators; and the punishment of death followed, with the addition of decapitation and exposure of the mangled heads on lofty poles, near the high road, where it approached the scene of this sad retribution of domestic tyranny.

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The next individual to the overseer, in the executive part of a sugar-plantation, is the head-driver; and his picture, as it is drawn by the present author, is truly impressive and original.

'The most important personage in the slave-population of an estate is the head-driver. He is seen carrying with him the emblems of his rank and dignity, a polished staff or wand, with prongy crooks on it to lean on, and a short-handled, tangible whip; his office combining within itself a power, derived principally from the overseer, of directing all conditions of slaves, relative to the precise work he wishes each gang or mechanic to undergo or execute. The great gang is comprised of the most powerful field-negroes, and is always under his charge. These are the strength with which principally to carry into effect the main work in the field, and manufacture the sugar and rum. There are so many points to turn to, so many occasions for his skill, vigilance, steadiness, and trust-worthiness, that the selection of such a man, fit for such a place, requires circumspection, and an intimate knowledge of his talents and capacity. A bad or indifferent head driver sets almost every thing at variance; injures the negroes, and the culture of the land. He is like a cruel blast that pervades every thing, and spares nothing.'

Mr. Roughley has shewn a laudable anxiety to impress on sugar-planters the necessity of humane treatment of their slaves, with a view to their own interest; and he does this with an eagerness of manner, which too plainly shews how often the caprice and cruelty of overseers and drivers injure the property of their employers. He tells us that 'some overseers are passionately fond of night-work, and send the mill-gang and boilers to the field during the greater part of the day, on purpose to push on some favorite field-work, which, in my opinion, is a bad plan, if it can be avoided.' The poor wretches, who have been all night laboring in the boiling house, are not likely to do much work in the field during the heat of the succeeding day, even under the inspiring lash of the cart-whip.

Throughout this volume, the writer appears quite enamoured of his subject; and this, indeed, is not surprizing when we consider the length of time during which he pursued the occupation of a planter. He speaks with a degree of rapture of 'the noble science of cane-planting,' (p. 182.) and expresses himself in the figurative language of poetry respecting the habitudes and appetites of this parent of sweetness.

'The sugar-cane, in its primitive state, seems to court the favour and auspices of the great luminary of day. In its infancy it is cherished by it, in its youth it is invigorated, and in its progress to maturity it is ripened and supported. So many favours proceeding from this great enlivener of nature, induce the sugar-

cane

came to seek, as it were, a situation to benefit by its sustaining powers.' — 'The bounty of the morning sun is mostly to be prized, mostly to be wished for on cane-pieces. It dissipates the rigours of a cold, damp, bleak night, makes vegetation glad, spontaneous, and thriving; and generally when it shows upon land early in the morning, its visits are prolonged till evening.'

We cannot conclude without recommending this 'Guide' to the notice of West-India proprietors, and sugar-planters; and we sincerely hope that, while slavery continues to exist, the sound judgment of Mr. R., and the humane principles of conduct which he every where inculcates, may exert a benignant influence on those whose lot it is to exact compulsory labor from their enslaved fellow-men.

ART. X. *Historical Life of Joanna of Sicily, Queen of Naples, and Countess of Provence*; with correlative Details of the Literature and Manners of Italy and Provence, in the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Centuries. 2 Vols. 8vo. 17. 5s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1824.

THE prevailing character of this new contribution to Italian literature is far from uninteresting; the execution of it is at least respectable; and it is only to the supposed deficiency and incorrectness of the historical materials, that we must attribute the delay of its appearance to so late a period as the present. In many points of view, the subject has long been considered as both important and attractive; and several modern writers, we know, have had it under contemplation, though the dubious and disputed nature of the accounts concerning the period induced them finally to abandon the attempt. Another, and perhaps still more cogent, reason for declining such a task was the knowledge that so many relative points connected with the revival of literature and the arts, during the middle ages, had been already amply treated and illustrated in works professedly devoted to such subjects. The variety, indeed, and the voluminous character of our literary notices respecting the age of Petrarch and Boccaccio, which embrace most of the events in which those distinguished men were interested, and have been published rather extensively in various modern languages, must necessarily detract somewhat from the merit and novelty of the literary portions of the present volumes. In truth, they contain little either of fact or anecdote relating to the characters and productions of the times, excepting the author's immediate subject of the Queen of Naples and her court, that we do not find in numerous other

other publications connected with the revival of literature during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. The information contained in them, also, is not very difficult of access; it having become almost familiar to the public through the labors of many English writers, subsequent to those of M. de Sade, and other literary historians of Italy and Germany. To these we may add the more particular but conflicting accounts given by native writers, such as Collenuccio and Costanzo; besides private notices of the characters who bore a part in the court-transactions during the times of Joanna and her successors.

Much *literary* novelty, therefore, cannot be said to attach to this work: but it has the merit of arranging and presenting all that was before scattered through a variety of channels, in a new form, and under a different point of view; and the previous notoriety of much of the literary information will be found to derogate the less from the merit of the remaining portions of the work, because it is held in due subservience to the history and transactions of the times, on which a far greater degree of interest will be found to depend. Granting, indeed, that the authorities employed could more generally be deemed genuine, and correct, no subject perhaps is better calculated to afford such interest than the character and adventures of the Queen, and the transactions of the Neapolitan court, during a part of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Nearly two ages ago, Brantome is known to have expressed his surprize that neither Petrarch nor Boccaccio had employed their talents in drawing out a regular history of the life and reign of a princess whom both have so highly extolled; and this is doubly to be regretted, because one of the earliest histories relating to the period, that of Collenuccio, abounds with fabrications little consistent with the name of history, and in many points asperses the character of the Queen: who, with less justice than attended the unfortunate Mary Stuart, has been accused of having conspired the death of her husband Andrew. Possessed of great beauty, united to virtues and qualities of a high order, and celebrated for her wit, learning, and accomplishments, Joanna had every thing in her character that was favorable to the refutation of so heinous a charge; while the circumstances, however suspicious in a few points, have by no means the same strength of evidence as in the case of the Scottish Queen. The idol of her court, flattered by the first wits and scholars, and equally fond of literary and political fame, with abilities enabling her to succeed for a period in her object, it is extremely improbable that she would think of arming her hand against a consort whose

weakness of character would never voluntarily have interfered with her own views of power. It would much better have promoted her purpose to have contrived the destruction of the usurping priest Friar Robert, who had acquired such complete ascendancy over the national counsels as to thwart her views in almost every direction. Any accusation of this kind would have worn a much stronger air of probability; and we are glad to perceive that the author affords little countenance to the report of Andrew's assassination by Joanna: which he attributes on sounder authority to a separate party, most likely free from the least instigation or connivance of the Queen.

On this subject we shall enter into some details in the author's own words, and shall thus afford by no means the least interesting specimen of the style and character of his work; which is in general composed with a temperate and impartial spirit, united to considerable ease and energy of language.

The 20th of September, 1345, was fixed for the coronation of the king and queen. On the night of the 18th they retired to rest as usual, intending to return at an early hour the next day to Naples, preparatory to the ceremonies and fatigues of the morrow. The Hungarian attendants of Andrew were sunk in sleep and wine, the monks of the convent were enjoying their short repose previous to their customary hour of chaunting matins, when Mabrice, the sister of Jacobuzio di Pace, Andrew's chamberlain, who was one of the ladies of the Queen's bed-chamber, entered in haste, and told Andrew that a courier from Friar Robert had just arrived, and waited to confer with him on affairs of moment. Unsuspicious of any evil design, the Prince got up and dressed himself, in order to proceed to an apartment at the end of a neighbouring gallery, where, not the supposed courier, but some of the conspirators were assembled. Immediately on his leaving the Queen, the door of her apartment was secured by the conspirators, we must suppose to prevent his return, or her egress. When he got about the middle of the gallery, some persons, but who they were was never positively known, surrounded him; one stopped his mouth with an iron gauntlet or glove so as to prevent his cries; others threw round his neck a cord with a running knot, a towel, or a handkerchief, — for the circumstances are differently related, and all dragged him forward to the balcony of the open gallery, from which he was hung over the garden, and some of the conspirators stationed there strangled him by pulling him by the feet. Having accomplished their horrible purpose, they would have proceeded to bury the body in the garden, with the intention of saying he had left the kingdom for Hungary, by the advice of his counsellors; but the execution of this imbecile contrivance was stopped by the unexpected appearance of a Hungarian maid (by some said to have been the nurse of Andrew, but

but not so called by Villani,) who slept near, probably in one of the apartments under the balcony, and who was disturbed by the fall of the body, when the cord which suspended it was cut or broken. Her cries assembled the inhabitants of the convent to the spot, and dispersed the conspirators, who fled in all directions; and the body of the unfortunate Prince was immediately carried into the church of the convent. Of this horrible transaction, little is certainly known, except the atrocious catastrophe. Historians disagree as to the circumstances, the instigators, and the perpetrators of the murder, and abound in directly contradictory assertions: some say that Andrew was sleeping with the Queen when he was called up; and as Boccaccio on the one side, who was at Naples at the time, and Villani on the other, who had been informed by Nicholas, the Hungarian, his governor, agree in this, it was most probably the case; others, however, say he was in the anti-chamber, undressing, and others that he was in a different apartment altogether, with the ladies of the Queen's bed-chamber, laughing and talking with childish mirth. The Queen, immediately on the murder, fled to Naples, in a dreadful state of agitation and fear; and calling round her the most esteemed friends of King Robert, commanded their counsels in this fearful emergency. Messengers were immediately dispatched to inform the Pope and the King of Hungary of the dreadful event; and Joanna is said to have written to the latter a most pathetic letter, imploring his protection for her and her unborn child. No authentic account remains of how or when she became acquainted, or showed acquaintance, with the murder of Andrew. Villani only says, she returned to Naples next morning, and did not show the grief she ought to have done. Her contemporary friends, who have not had recourse to invention in her defence, are also silent on the subject. But some writers have represented her behaviour according as it appeared most likely to their imagination that she would act on the supposition of her guilty participation in the foul deed. The Chronicle of Gravina represents the nurse, after seeing the body in the garden, as calling Andrew, and receiving no answer, on which she burst into the apartment; and states that when the Queen was informed by her and others, whom her cries drew to her apartment, of the murder of the King, she was so conscience-stricken, and in such a state of guilty confusion, that she could not even rise from the spot where she lay till the morning was far advanced, and knew not how to raise her tearless eyes, or to look up at any one.

The fancy of other writers has given a directly contrary picture. The nurse, according to her usual custom, goes into the apartment and finds the Queen sitting up at the side of the bed; she asks her where the King is, Joanna laughing, says she does not know, on which the nurse goes out, and, directed by a *miraculous light*, sees Andrew's body lying on the grass, below the balcony; supposing him asleep, she returns to the chamber, saying, "Lady, the King sleeps in the garden," to which the Queen replies, "Let him sleep there;" still unsatisfied, she

descends to the garden, where her appearance put the conspirators to flight.

'At the end of three days, the body of the unfortunate Andrew was conveyed to Naples, and buried in the cathedral, "where," says Bouche, "it was laid in the chapel of St. Louis, with many tears and lamentations." The horror that was expressed at his fate by all ranks of people in the kingdom of Naples is highly creditable to the moral feeling of the times: the youth, the innocence, and the unmerited sufferings of the victim moved the most obdurate hearts. But whilst historians unanimously record this circumstance, the representations of many would lead a careless reader to suppose that the remains of the Prince were neglected and exposed to indignity. "His body lay three days unburied, and then, say they, was brought to Naples, and buried by the canon of the cathedral at his own expense." Hence some make out an additional charge against Joanna, accusing her of neglecting the interment altogether; whilst others assert that she had it performed hastily and privately before she left Aversa. These accusations neutralize each other. The first opinion is derived from what Bouche calls "*the ingenious, but false, epitaph*," inscribed on the tomb of Andrew in the early part of the 16th century, by one of those who, after the accusations originally made against her had been given up by her contemporaries, prompted by the fury of party-spirit in religion, endeavoured to revive them after her decease.'

We can readily agree with the writer, after such a representation of circumstances, that they were well calculated to give rise to the slanderous charge which followed: a compound of truth and falsehood, in which so many other accusations injurious to the fame of eminent persons often originate.

'The Queen's general character, likewise, for equity, humanity, patience, and forgiveness, is greatly in her favour; while the testimony of the judicious historian Costanzo exhibits Andrew only as stupid and indolent, and rather as devoid of great qualities than degraded by vicious ones. Villani designates him only as a youthful and innocent king; while Petrarch, rising in his praises, calls him the most gentle and inoffensive of men, a youth of a rare disposition, a king of great hopes.'

Without attempting to follow the author into unnecessary details, all tending to establish the innocence of the party accused, we proceed to more interesting points connected with the fortunes of the ill-fated Joanna; whose prudence, constancy, and courage, never forsook her even amid the most trying circumstances, but were in vain exerted to rescue her and her country from their impending doom. Living in a court and among a people who were a prey to civil distractions, the object of the intrigues of some of her most confidential agents and advisers, and betrayed by her own relatives as well as by
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the court to which she was allied by marriage, she long sustained the shock of party-conflict, and delayed those calamities which she could not avert. The magnanimous protectress of her people, the generous patroness of arts and learning, admired and pitied by all ranks of disinterested characters in the nation, she would doubtless have risen superior to her misfortunes, and even have freed her country from foreign invasion, had it not been for the perfidy of her kinsman, followed up by that of his successor the Duke Charles of Durazzo; who sought to raise himself on her ruin, and who became the cause both of his own and of her untimely fate. Though she had been his benefactress and friend, was nearly related to him by the ties of marriage, and though he was her intended successor, none of these considerations were able to check his insatiable cupidity and ambition. He fomented the dissensions and jealousies of all her enemies; corresponding with, yet betraying, each as his interest appeared to dictate: but he never broke with any party until he was prepared to strike the fatal blow. He attempted even to become reconciled to the court of Hungary, whose armies were laying waste the Neapolitan territories, (under the pretence of avenging the death of Andrew, the King of Hungary's brother,) by spreading fresh calumnies against his benefactress and Queen; and by this step he laid the foundation of all her subsequent misfortunes, as well as of his own destruction: for he was unable to pacify the hatred of the Hungarian monarch, who, after his occupation of the Neapolitan capital, prepared to avenge himself on the supposed assassins of his brother. As a variety of important and unhappy events are crowded about this period into a short space of time, we shall here extract some of the more interesting that are connected with the history of the unfortunate Queen. She could have little chance of success against such a combination of enemies, headed by an implacable and ambitious monarch; who, with his barbarous army, 'terrified the meaner herd by the ill-omened aspect of his sable standard, on which was horribly depicted the murder of Andrew. To render the effect of this portentous banner more impressive, it was borne and surrounded by a chosen band of mourners, habited in black.'

'In this state of affairs,' continues the author, 'judging her cause to be utterly hopeless, from her inability to distinguish her friends from her enemies, the Queen resolved to yield to a storm she could not avert, and to retire to Provence. To save her kingdom from the ruin which must be the effect of continuing the contest, let the result be what it might, she summoned a general assembly of the nation at Naples, consisting of deputies from

the nobility and the chief cities, and the governors of the capital itself, and publicly absolved them from their allegiance. The father of Joanna is recorded to have *spoken by his wise men* in the public assemblies of Florence; but she, trusting in her own powers, addressed her assembled people herself, in a strain of eloquence that left an indelible impression on their minds, and contributed much to her restoration to her throne.

Her address began by stating, in undisguised terms, "the danger which threatened the capital from the approach of the King of Hungary, now almost at its gates, and her inability to resist him, from the effect of the calumnies of those who, without any crime of her own, had accused her of the most atrocious iniquity, insensible to the pity they should have felt for their queen, who, in the earliest bloom of youth, had been the victim of misfortune." She then declared her resolution to leave the kingdom, "in order to make manifest her innocence to the vicar of God on earth, as it was known to God in heaven, and to force the whole world to acknowledge it from the assistance she felt the certain hope of receiving from the Almighty himself. But unwilling that her nobles or people should be afflicted as she had been afflicted, she would spare them the misery which a contest with the Hungarians would draw down on them, and therefore, though she felt assured that neither the barons nor the people would refuse to defend her just rights in arms, if not for her own merits, (for they knew that till that hour she had been a queen in name only, without power to do good to any one,) at least for the love they bore the memory of her father and grandfather, — she yielded her rights for the public good; and absolving the nobles and people from their oaths of allegiance, commanded them to make no resistance, but freely to go to the enraged King of Hungary, and tender him their submission in person, delivering the keys of towns and castles, without awaiting the summons of herald or trumpet."

The inexpressible grace and touching eloquence of Joanna moved the assembly to tears. Calm and magnanimous, she alone was sufficiently composed at this affecting moment to speak; and animated by the unequivocal sympathy she excited, she bid them "cast away despondency, and share with her the cheerful hope she felt in the justice of God, who, she could not doubt, would display her innocence to the world, and restore her to her kingdom and her fair fame."

To one convinced of the innocence of the persecuted Joanna, nothing can be imagined more affecting than this young and lovely woman thus commanding herself, and melting the stern warrior and rough burgher into tears at her feet. "If there be any thing touching in nature, it is the tears of proud man; if there be any thing sublime, it is the mild fortitude of weak woman." The profound silence which had reigned in the assembly on the first address of the Queen, was now broken by clamorous exclamations, imploring her to remain, and dare every hazard, the nobles vowing to maintain her on the throne at the risk of their own and their children's lives.

' It is not to be supposed that one of the most captivating women the world ever saw could appeal in vain to the sympathy of man in this age of chivalry, when devotion to beauty was carried to a degree of enthusiasm often bordering on madness. Even those, in whom age and experience had chilled the ardent enthusiasm of manhood in its prime, were not less profoundly affected by her address, and whilst they applauded and confirmed her sage resolution, as the most effectual method of ultimately securing the success of her cause, they vowed never to remain at rest till they had procured her return, and to devote their lives and fortunes to her service. The 15th of January was accordingly fixed for Joanna's embarkation for Provence, and three galleys were provided to convey her and her household, with her most precious effects and attached friends. The people of Naples had hitherto been divided between horror of the crime attributed to her, and early affection formed in her happy childhood, when she had been the delight of every eye, "having grown up familiarly amongst them from her cradle." The latter sentiment now alone prevailed, heightened by pity for the misfortunes which, under any point of view, had been drawn down on her by the evil agency of others, and by "admiration of that wisdom which began to display itself in all her actions, and gave promise of what she one day proved." Their regrets were unanimous and vehement, and when she bade adieu to the mansion of her father, every man and woman in the city repaired to the scene of embarkation to kiss her hand, or catch a last sight of her beautiful form as she stood on the deck of the galley which every moment lessened to their view. Both sexes wept bitterly as she left the shore; and as long as the galleys could be seen, even as a small speck on the ocean, they were watched by the anxious crowd; and when they could no longer discern the frail bark which was to bear their young queen, in the depth of winter, through a voyage, which the nautical ignorance of the age rendered dangerous, they repaired to the churches, and surrounding the altars, invoked every saint to grant her a prosperous voyage. As Joanna sailed past the gloomy Castel del Ovo, situated on an isolated rock in the bay, she might have caught a last glimpse of the form of her child, whom she was destined never more to see, and who was kept there as in a place of security, by his guardians appointed by the Pope. For the first three days she was consoled by the society of her husband, Louis of Taranto, and her sister-in-law, the Princess of Taranto, who, in the disturbed state of the kingdom, was sent by her husband to a more secure asylum with her father; but on the 18th Louis and the Princess landed on the neutral territory of Italy and proceeded to Florence, the latter accompanied by Nicholas Acciajuoli, on an important mission to that city, whilst Joanna pursued her melancholy voyage, coasting round the shores of Italy, to Nice.

' A few days after the departure of the Queen, intelligence reached Naples, that the King of Hungary had taken and sacked the town of Sulmone, which had disdained to profit by her parting

licence and command, to yield without resistance: On this, the princes of the royal family sent an embassy to Louis, King of Hungary, and obtained from him a safe-conduct, and a declaration that he considered them innocent of the murder of his brother. Trusting in this safe-conduct, in their affinity, and in the laws of chivalric honour, then deemed inviolable, they went in a body to meet him at Aversa. They were received with every appearance of good will by Louis, and as he had already assumed the title of King of Jerusalem and Sicily, they performed their homage according to the customary form, kissing him on the mouth, after which they all eat (*ate*) together. Either of these circumstances rendered their persons sacred according to the laws of knighthood, and Louis had now plighted his faith to protect those who ranked as his vassals. After the repast, the King armed himself and all his people *cap-à-pié*, yet keeping the princes and the Neapolitan nobles who accompanied them unarmed. When they were again on horseback, with the intention of proceeding to Naples, he said to the Duke of Durazzo, who rode in seeming amity at his side, "*Lead us to where my brother Andrew was killed.*" Terrified at these ill-omened words, and at the expression of ferocity which appeared in his countenance, the Duke replied, "*Don't trouble yourself about that, I was never there.*" Louis, however, persisted in his demand, and on arriving at the monastery of the Celestine brothers, they dismounted, ascended to the gallery above the hall, and went out on the balcony above the garden. Here the King, in a transport of fury, said to the unfortunate Durazzo, "You have been a false traitor, and compassed the death of your lord my brother, and intrigued in the papal court in conjunction with your uncle, the Cardinal of Perigord, who at your request delayed and endeavoured altogether to prevent his coronation, which should, as was fitting, have been performed by the sanction of the Pope; and this delay was the cause of his death. With fraud and deceit you obtained a dispensation from the Pope to take your cousin, his sister-in-law, to wife, in order that by the death of him and the Queen Joanna his wife, you might become king in their stead. And you have been in arms against our power with the traitor, the Lord Louis of Taranto, our rebel, who has done as you have done, and with fraud and sacrilege has married that iniquitous and adulterous woman, traitorous to her king and husband, who was Andrew our brother; and therefore it is fitting you should die where you caused him to die." Durazzo, with earnest protestations, asserted his innocence, and prayed for mercy. "*How can you excuse yourself?*" interrupted the stern Louis, producing letters in his name to Charles Artus concerting the murder of Andrew, and sealed with his customary seal. Without giving him an instant to examine or disown the document, he called forward an Hungarian noble, who, as had been previously ordered, stabbed the unarmed Durazzo in the breast, whilst another took him by the hair; the first assassin then aimed a blow at his throat, which did not sever his head from his body, but of which he soon after expired."

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This extract, we think, will convey a more forcible idea of the civil distractions and the state of parties in the loveliest portion of Italy, during these early ages, than any more numerous and isolated passages would enable us to do; and for reasons already mentioned, we decline to enter here into any literary discussions arising out of the subject: preferring, not less for the reader's pleasure, we imagine, than our own, to trace the farther progress, vicissitudes, and final doom of this interesting Queen. Though she was compelled to retire into Provence during the occupation of Naples, the warlike character of her second husband, Louis of Taranto, placed her affairs at one time on a better footing, and the King of Hungary not only withdrew his troops, but a peace shortly afterward followed. Joanna and Louis were then crowned together at Naples, and received overtures from the Sicilians to take possession of their island: she was consequently again crowned at Messina; and she was enabled, for a period, to promote the arts of commerce, and to reconcile the jarring interests of her kingdom. In this interval of repose, she exhibited the character of an able and enlightened politician; improving the internal welfare and resources of the country; patronizing men of merit; and, by encouraging painting and architecture, adorning her capital with several noble and beautiful works. The church of the Incoronata and other public buildings evinced at once the extent of her liberality and her taste. Unfortunately, however, she was not destined to enjoy a tranquillity long enough to enable her to consolidate the power and welfare of her people: for fresh causes of dissension arose; and she lost a strong support in the death of her consort, whose military talents were calculated to give stability to her throne. The accession of Urban VI. to the papal chair, — her third marriage, with James of Majorca, — and the machinations of the Prince of Taranto, — were all events inimical to her welfare; while the subsequent misfortunes, captivity, and death of her husband, in a chivalric attempt to avenge his father, embittered the enjoyment of her power.

Not long afterward, her Provençal territories were invaded by the Duke of Anjou; while one of the Visconti made an attempt on Naples, to which the heroic Joanna opposed a successful resistance: again exhibiting a firmness equal to every danger, and which had already enabled her to combat and to overcome so many national trials and calamities. Together with the interests of commerce and of learning, she now promoted a wise and vigorous administration; devoting her efforts to the reform of legislative errors and abuses; availing herself of the talents of such civilians as Bartholus Baldus; and

and drawing round her the most distinguished characters in almost every department of science. By such wise and liberal policy she gained the admiration and affection of her subjects: while she extorted the well merited praises of the first wits and poets, with Petrarch and Boccaccio at their head, whose influential characters gave a farther sanction and authority to her measures. However reluctantly, we must here omit the interesting discussion of the merits of these two great writers, into which the author has entered much at length; though his remarks on the progressive literature of Italy, during these early times, evince considerable taste and ability. Next to the strange and violent election of the Archbishop of Bari to the Holy See, under the title of Urban VI., the marriage of the younger Charles of Durazzo with Margaret, Joanna's niece, proved the source of future calamity. Though the obligations which she had rendered to him long acted as a check on the indulgence of his ambitious designs, he began by degrees to throw off his respect and allegiance: he refused his services at the most important moments; and he witnessed the loss of her Provençal dominions, and her subsequent difficulties, without striking a single blow. On the contrary, he watched the progress of her misfortunes with an eager desire to avail himself of them, though chosen as the immediate heir of her kingdom; and to supplant her in right of her niece on the throne. At the same time Urban VI., whose united ferocity, firmness, and ambition, rendered him a most formidable enemy, adopted the violent resolution of deposing Joanna in favor of her adopted nephew, Charles Durazzo, on condition of his making over nearly half the kingdom to the Pope's nephew, a man of desperate and abandoned character, whose views Urban took the utmost pleasure in promoting. With this intent, he treated the Queen's ambassadors with the greatest indignity; a proceeding that justified her, after the publication of the papal ban, in uniting with other powers to sanction the election of a new Pope.

A schism thus arose in the church by the investiture of Clement VII. with a rival purple, which produced several strange and even ludicrous scenes. Hostilities were carried on with extreme bitterness on the side of Urban; who prevailed on Durazzo to accept his offer of the kingdom of Naples, and finally defeated the Clementine party at the battle of Marino. The Queen afforded Clement an asylum in the Castel del Ovo, which unhappily produced serious tumults at Naples: the new Pope was compelled to retire into Provence; while Joanna adopted the impolitic step of yielding up her niece Margaret, who had been held as a sort of hostage, to her husband Durazzo.

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this misplaced confidence, though allotted to her nearest relatives, she may be said to have hastened her final destiny; Pope Urban fulminated a fresh Bull against her, melted on the church-plate to raise supplies, and preached a general crusade against the powers which supported her. The people of Rome tried to throw off his yoke, and rose against these lenient measures: but such was his firmness and such his reliance that he defeated the attempt, while he anticipated the success of Joanna in adopting Louis of Anjou for her successor, hastening the entrance of Durazzo into Italy. The resistance opposed by Joanna was unequal to withstand the torrent of passion that threatened her; and though Otho, her fourth husband, displayed the utmost skill and bravery at the head of the Neapolitan army, he was unable to raise the siege of Caserta, where she was attacked by the allied forces. They soon became masters of nearly the whole of the Neapolitan territories, and the heroic Joanna was reluctantly compelled to surrender. In her subsequent interview with Durazzo, who felt a momentary pang of remorse when, as he knelt at the feet of her who had been his benefactress, she reproached him with his baseness and ingratitude: 'I will not attempt to enumerate,' she exclaimed, 'the benefits which I have conferred upon you; it would ill become a captive to humble her conqueror; heaven and earth behold us, and will witness between us. Remember only my regal dignity, (if any thing sacred can still find place in your memory,) and treat my husband with the respect due to a prince of his rank.' (i. ii. p. 235.) She then besought his mercy for the captives in the castle; among whom were many of the Clermont clergy, who too justly dreaded the cruel vengeance of the voracious Urbanists. 'Though Charles had thus forcibly seized the kingdom of Naples, the rich inheritance of Provence and Piedmont was not to be obtained unless Joanna should be deluded or intimidated into nominating him her heir, in this hope her life was for a time respected. Knowing her character that she was more likely to be moved by kindness than by fear, he at first treated her as if she had been a queen. She was approached with the customary honors, and attended by her usual officers.' This, however, did not last long; for when Durazzo found that she would not conform to his wishes in nominating him heir to the rich states of Provence, he ordered her to be removed to the fortress of St. Angelo. Still she remained firm to her purpose; though the experience of all history, and more especially the conduct of the founder of her own dynasty, in the murder of the innocent Conradine, had shewn her, that the prison of political

was but the vestibule of their tomb; and magnanimously awaiting her inevitable fate, she resolved to remain firm to her engagements with Clement and Louis of Anjou.' During eight months, all the miseries of captivity were inflicted on Joanna, in hopes that the privations which she suffered might subdue her proud spirit to purchase some amelioration of her condition, but without effect. In order to get rid of a part of his fears, and to secure to himself at least one ally, Charles basely complied with the embassy of the King of Hungary, who sent to congratulate him on his success, and to demand the death of Joanna as the reward of his past aid and the price of his future friendship: but, not daring to trust any Neapolitan with the bloody deed, he sent four Hungarian soldiers to Muro to carry it into execution.

' In the days of her most brilliant prosperity, Joanna had been remarkable for her constant attention to religious observances, and probably in the hour of her bitter reverse of fortune they constituted her only consolation. At stated hours, she performed her devotions alone in the chapel of the castle; on the morning of the 22d of May, 1381, she repaired as usual to the sacred spot, and while she knelt before the altar, imploring forgiveness at the throne of grace for her past offences, whatever they might have been, the Hungarian soldiers secretly entered, and whilst two of them guarded the door, the other two passed a silk cord round her neck, and instantly strangled her.' (Vol. ii. p. 246, 247.)

ART. XI. *The Life of Shakspeare; Enquiries into the Originality of his Dramatic Plots and Characters; and Essays on the Ancient Theatres and Theatrical Usages.* By Augustine Skottowe. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1*l.* 1*s.* Boards. Longman and Co. 1824.

SOME apparent circumstances in the life and conduct of Shakspeare make it difficult to write an honest biography of him. If the intimations which we may gather from his own sonnets were introduced into it with adequate detail and discussion, the writer would attract public censure: *harshly* narrated, the facts would seem a libel on the object of national idolatry; and *leniently* told, they might expose the author to moral reprobation. The age of James the First, however, was an age of impurity; and the manners of the sovereign, and the consent of Catholic Europe, had given a license to practices which may not in these happier days be tolerated, but of which then a sonneteer could boast. In the note Q to the life before us, Mr. Skottowe admits indeed the main inference, but has not attempted a chronological arrangement*

* The sonnet to Queen Elizabeth, which must have been one of the earliest, is numbered lxxx.

of the sonnets: nor has he related the incidents which they detail, or commented on the probable conjecture of Dr. Drake, (see our notice of his book, vol. lxxxix. p. 357.) that the initials W. H. stand for Wriothesley Henry, Earl of Southampton. Mr. S. has also overlooked the fact that Shakspeare's father was a Catholic, and has not discussed the question what became of Shakspeare when he fled from his birth-place to avoid the prosecution of Sir Thomas Lucy. We have given, in the article above cited, reasons for suspecting that he embarked at Bristol for the Straits, and visited Venice; and we think that his early conversancy with untranslated Italian literature can no otherwise be so plausibly explained. To the circumstances already enumerated by us, Mr. Skottowe adds that he had read the *Timon of Lucian*, which at that period existed in no vernacular language of Europe except the Italian; and, if *A Lover's Complaint* be taken, like the eclogues of Fairfax, as a shadowing-out of the personal history of the poet, he had been acquainted with a nun before he succeeded with Anne Hathaway, which can hardly have happened unless at Venice. — At p. 67. Mr. Skottowe omits to observe that the landlord of the Crown at Oxford was named John Davenant, in consequence of which the story loses in point. — Nevertheless, this is altogether an excellent literary life of Shakspeare. A careful consulter and a neat condenser of evidence, the author gives his facts and his dates with precision; and he excels even Mr. Malone in weighing the grounds for establishing the true chronological order of the several dramatic productions. His episodical history of the drama is short, yet full; and his critical appreciations, if less enthusiastic, are more equitable than those of his predecessors.

We would take this opportunity of withdrawing a conjecture hazarded by us in our commentary on Dr. Drake, that Shakspeare first went on the stage under the feigned name of Christopher Marlowe: for it has been shewn, in the forty-ninth number of a work called *The British Stage*, (p. 22.) that Christopher Marlowe was killed in an affray and buried at Deptford. He was consequently a real personage: — but the author of *Faustus*, had he lived, must have become a powerful rival to Shakspeare himself.

As a large portion of Mr. Skottowe's two volumes is devoted to the ascertainment of the order in which the plays were produced, we shall copy the presumed succession which he discusses;

‘ Including those plays which he either re-wrote, or so materially modified as to stamp them as his own, Shakspeare was the

undoubted author of thirty-four dramas between the period of his departure from, and final return to, Stratford. Of the order in which they made their appearance little that is decisive is known; and the most ardent investigator of the subject, after a laborious search for contemporary notices of, and allusions to, Shakespeare's dramas, and for indications of time in his works themselves, has not ventured to designate the result of his labours by any other title than "An attempt to ascertain the order in which the plays of Shakespeare were written," and modestly concludes, that it is *probable* they were composed "nearly in the following succession; which, though it cannot at this day be ascertained to be their true order, may yet be considered as approaching nearer to it than any which has been observed in the various editions of his works."

1	Second Part of Henry VI.	-	-	1591
2	Third Part of Henry VI.	-	-	—
3	Two Gentlemen of Verona	-	-	—
4	Comedy of Errors	-	-	1592
5	King Richard II.	-	-	1593
6	King Richard III.	-	-	—
7	Love's Labours' Lost	-	-	1594
8	Merchant of Venice	-	-	—
9	Midsummer Night's Dream	-	-	—
10	Taming of the Shrew	-	-	1596
11	Romeo and Juliet	-	-	—
12	King John	-	-	—
13	First Part of King Henry IV.	-	-	1597
14	Second Part of King Henry IV.	-	-	1599
15	As You Like It	-	-	—
16	King Henry V.	-	-	—
17	Much Ado about Nothing	-	-	1600
18	Hamlet	-	-	—
19	Merry Wives of Windsor	-	-	1601
20	Troilus and Cressida	-	-	1602
21	Measure for Measure	-	-	1603
22	Henry VIII.	-	-	—
23	Othello	-	-	1604
24	Lear	-	-	1605
25	All's Well that Ends Well	-	-	1606
26	Macbeth	-	-	—
27	Julius Cæsar	-	-	1607
28	Twelfth Night	-	-	—
29	Antony and Cleopatra	-	-	1608
30	Cymbeline	-	-	1609
31	Coriolanus	-	-	1610
32	Timon of Athens	-	-	—
33	Winter's Tale	-	-	1611
34	Tempest	-	-	—

' Some positions of this chronology rest on distinct and positive testimony, many are just deductions from certain premises, but others

others are the result of conjectures so refined, on allusions so obscure and dubious, as to mock the name of evidence.'

In this list, we especially lament the omission of "Thomas Lord Cromwell," one of the best biographical tragedies in our own or any language, and every way worthy of Shakspeare, whose manner it remarkably exemplifies. Nothing seems to us wanting in the evidence for its genuineness. It was entered on the Stationers' books in 1602, and in Mr. Malone's opinion was printed in that year; and, as the second edition, published in 1613, states the play to have been written by W. S., these initials probably accompanied the original title. In 1602, Shakspeare was writing his Henry VIII., and had his memory stocked with the very authorities principally used in this play; such as Holinshed, Fox's Book of Martyrs, and Bandello. It is extremely probable, therefore, that he should thus have continued the story of those times. The "Yorkshire Tragedy" also appears to us amply provided with external and internal evidence of genuineness. The play of "Cymbeline" is dated by Dr. Drake in 1605, and on better grounds, we think, than those on which it is here assigned to 1609: for it is rather a crude performance, and not likely to have been written in the maturity of Shakspeare's mind. It makes great use of a book intitled "Westward for Smelts," published in 1603, but contains no marks of later allusions; and it must be nearly contemporary with "Lear," as it ascribes a Pagan religion to the early British people, and makes Jupiter, Apollo, Hecate, Juno, and Mars, into the gods of both courts. Moreover, the prophecy, which Posthumus reads after his dream in the prison, is evidently constructed with an allusion to the recent accession of James the First. He was a lion's whelp (*i. e.* of royal descent), who, without seeking found a throne, having been embraced (*i. e.* adopted) by a piece of tender air (*i. e.* by a woman, as the soothsayer expounds). From the stately cedar (*i. e.* Henry VII.) had been lopt branches, which for many years lay dead (*i. e.* without the ancestral crown) and then revived, and were rejoined to the old stock, (*i. e.* the English crown,) and grew afresh. Then was Britain to be fortunate, and to flourish in peace and plenty. This seemingly decisive mark of date has been hitherto overlooked.

Concerning the religion of Shakspeare, nothing occurs in Mr. Skottowe's biography: but it was clearly of the negative kind; for there are many passages in which he jests at articles of belief, many in which he ridicules fanatics, and the whole of "Lear" is one long painful satire on Providence itself, repre-

representing virtue (like the author of *Candide*) as uniformly unsuccessful.

The note K of Mr. Skottowe is curious, and gives a welcome description of the Globe theatre. (P. 115.) — To the life and the connected notes succeed thirty-four essays, one being allotted to each of the acknowledged plays of Shakspeare. They are both antiquarian and critical; they endeavor to date each play; they notice the main sources of the plot or fable; and they terminate with an appreciation of its poetic worth. The historical plays are discussed in the chronological order of the events which they dramatize; and the others, in the order in which they are supposed to have been written: — we should have preferred the latter arrangement for the whole collection. Mr. Skottowe has most attentively consulted the valuable labors of Malone, and has frequently added the result of original investigations: but he has somewhat negligently passed over Dr. Drake, who has many new and several sound peculiarities. — In order to give an idea of these introductory essays, we copy that which relates to "*Troilus and Cressida*."

' Previously to the publication of the first ten books of the *Iliad* in 1581 by Arthur Hall, who translated them from the French, and the gradual transfusion, between 1596 and 1614, of the whole of Homer's works from the Greek into English by Chapman, the only sources of information open to the unlearned reader, relative to the history of Troy, were the *Troy Book* of Lydgate, and Caxton's *Recuyel of the Histories of Troy*. Lydgate's book was a poetic translation, with alterations and additions, from a Latin history of Troy, written in 1287 by Guido of Colonna. Lydgate's work was printed in 1513, and subsequently modernised, and reduced into regular stanzas, under the title of "*The Life and Death of Hector*." Caxton's *Recuyel of the Histories of Troy*, printed in 1471, was a prose version of a French book, with a similar title, by Raoul le Fevre.

' That Shakspeare was indebted to one of the preceding writers is fully proclaimed by his drama, but to which of them has been made a question; two words, however, appear to decide the matter. The numerous passages that have often been quoted from Lydgate to show that his book was the authority, prove nothing; for the pages of Caxton are equally illustrative of the poet's text. All doubt, however, is removed by the fact, that Shakspeare names the entrances to "*Priam's six-gated city*" after Caxton's *Recuyel*, and not from Lydgate's *Troy Book*: Shakspeare's orthography of "*Antenorides*" agrees in every letter with that of Caxton; while Lydgate designates the sixth gate "*Anthonydes*."

' Caxton's *Recuyel*, and Chaucer's "*Booke of Troilus and Cresseide*," were the chief materials used by Shakspeare in the construction of his drama. There is also to be traced the influence

fluence of some portions of *Homer's Iliad*, which had assumed an English garb before the play was written.

In his management of the story of *Troilus and Cressida*, the dramatist paid an almost equal regard to Caxton and Chaucer, selecting circumstances, indifferently, from the tale of either. As a lover, *Troilus* is distinguished by the attributes usually ascribed to the votaries of beauty; but, in other respects, Caxton, Chaucer, and Shakspeare appear alike solicitous for his exaltation. Caxton's praise is brief, but full:—"Troilus was great, and of great courage; well attempered, and sore beloved of young maidens. In force and gladness he resembled much to Hector, and was the second after him of prowess; and there was not in all the royaume a more strong and hardy young man." Chaucer is still more unmeasured in his commendations:—

"And Troilus well woxen was in height,
And complete formed by proportion,
So well that kind it naught amenden might,
Young, fresh, strong, and hardy as lion,
Trew as steele, in ech conditioun
One of the best enteched creature,
That is or shall, while that the world may dure.

"And certainly, in story as it is fond,
That Troilus was never unto no wight
As in his time, in no degree second,
In daring do that longeth to a knight,
All might a giaunt passen him of might,
His herte aye with the first and with the best,
Stood peregall to dare done what him list."

Shakspeare surpasses both his predecessors in the real dignity of character which he bestows on *Troilus*.*

Between the character given of *Cressida*, and the actions ascribed to her by Caxton and Chaucer, there is a contradiction, not exactly reconcilable to modern notions. The former, in addition to his description of her, whom he calls *Bresyda*, as passing fair, of mean stature, white and medled with red, and well made, sweet and piteous, and whom many men loved for her beauty, calls her "wise." Chaucer amplifies this praise of the lady, adding;—

"She sobre was, eke simple, and wise withall,
The best inorished eke that might bee,
And goodly of her speech in general;
Charitable, estately, lusty, and free,
Ne nevermore, ne lacked her pitee;
Tender-hearted, sliding of corage,
But truly I cannot tell her age."

And this is the lady the sequel to whose story is shameless inconstancy! Shakspeare took a very different view of the subject.

* (Act iv. sc. 5.) "The youngest son of Priam, a true knight," &c.

She was to appear in the subsequent scenes of his play destitute of virtue; and he represents her, therefore, from the first, as volatile and licentious, gross in ideas and indelicate in language. (Act i. sc. 2.) It is true, that she loves Troilus, and all her protestations of fidelity are the undisguised feelings of her heart at the moment (act iv. sc. 2.): but as her love is violent, so is it transitory; and the same fervent temperament that, in the first instance, resigned her to the dominion of one tender feeling, renders her willingly susceptible of a second, when separated from the original object of her passion. Shakspeare's representation of Cressida is one consistent exemplification of an animated passage, in which she is justly and accurately described by Ulysses, —

“ Fye, fye upon her,
There's language in her eye, her cheek, her lip!
Nay, her foot speaks; her wanton spirits look out
At every joint and motive of her body.
Oh these encounterers! so glib of tongue,
That give a coasting welcome ere it comes,
And wide unclasp the tables of their thoughts
To every ticklish reader! Set them down
For sluttish spoils of opportunity,
And daughters of the game.” (Act iv. sc. 5.)

“ Pandarus flourishes with extraordinary prominence in Chaucer's tale; whence Shakspeare caught not only the general idea of his character, but several minute particulars of conduct: such as Pandarus' rallying of Cressida, after he had betrayed her to the arms of Troilus (act iv. sc. 2.); a passage completely parallel to one in Chaucer.

“ Diomedes is a courtly and obsequious lover in Caxton and Chaucer; but he appears in Shakspeare born for any thing rather than “ a woman's slave.” He, in fact, subdues the wanton Cressida, by convincing her that the practice on him of the arts and coquetries of her sex will be the surest way to lose him: — “ Thou never shall mock Diomedes again;” — “ I do not like this fooling.” (Act v. sc. 2.)

“ The story of Troilus and his faithless mistress was of itself too slight to form the entire subject of a play, and the poet endeavoured to supply the deficiency by the introduction of the principal actors in the Trojan war previous to the death of Hector; with which event his drama closes. The facts of the historical portion of the play are confusedly intermixed: the writer was evidently conversant with his subject; but shrunk from the trouble of reducing the events represented into a systematic and regular arrangement. Caxton's work afforded abundant information relative to the origin and progress of the Trojan war; but Shakspeare derived from the first book of Homer his knowledge of an event which, next to the story of Troilus and Cressida itself, is made the leading feature of the drama, — the retiring of Achilles from the field of battle. Shakspeare's reason for that circumstance is different from Homer's: —

"The great Achilles, — whom opinion crowns
The sinew and the forehead of our host, —
Having his ear full of his airy fame,
Grows dainty of his worth, and in his tent
Lies mocking our designs." (Act i. sc. 3.)

* * * * *

"Possessed he is with greatness;
And speaks not to himself, but with a pride
That quarrels at self-breath: imagin'd worth
Holds in his blood such swoln and hot discourse,
That 'twixt his mental and his active parts,
Kingdom'd Achilles in commotion rages,
And batters down himself." (Act ii. sc. 3.)

'It is, indeed, a sad perversion of historic fact to convert the just wrath of the high-minded Achilles into a wayward and splenetic ebullition of vanity and pride; but Shakspeare seized on the incident of Achilles withdrawing himself from combat, and bent it to an object that he had immediately in view, — the playing off Achilles and Ajax on each other. To effect his purpose, the dramatist took scarcely fewer liberties with the character of Ajax than with that of Achilles. Caxton gives the following description of Ajax: — "Of great stature, great and large in the shoulders, great arms, and alway was well cloathed, and richly. And was of no great enterprise, and spake lightly." But by no licence of interpretation can this passage be said to convey the most distant hint, except the words "spake lightly," of the highly-coloured, but well discriminated character given of Ajax by the poet: —

"This man hath robbed many beasts of their particular additions: he is as valiant as the lion, churlish as the bear, slow as the elephant; a man into whom nature hath so crowded humours, that his valour is crushed into folly, his folly sauced with discretion. There is no man hath a virtue that he hath not a glimpse of; nor any man an attaint, but he carries some stain of it: he is melancholy without cause, and merry against the hair. He hath the joints of every thing; but every thing so out of joint, that he is a gouty Briareus, — many hands and no use; or purblind Argus, — all eyes and no sight." (Act i. sc. 2.)

'All the circumstances which fix the contest with Hector on Ajax; the mortification of Achilles' vanity by the insidious exaltation of Ajax; and Achilles' consequent resolve again to take up arms, are inventions of Shakspeare, executed with inimitable dexterity and wit.

'The second book of Homer gives a very distinct description of Thersites as a deformed and factious cynic. The dramatist, either in compliance with the taste of the public or his own judgment, has degraded Thersites into a common stage buffoon.

'The deference of Shakspeare to authority is no where so exact in this play as to induce him, on any material point, to copy the language of his originals. In assigning speeches to the different dramatis personæ, he kept in view the general impression of the

characteristic features of the Greek and Trojan leaders, which his reading had necessarily supplied him with; and several of the orations would not have disgraced the lips of those to whom they are ascribed. If it be not at all times easy, in the drama, to recognize those whose names are linked with the never-dying history of Troy, let it not be forgotten, that Shakspeare drew from a source so polluted as to designate the heroes of antiquity by the modern appellations of dukes, earls, barons, knights, and squires, and which speaks familiarly of a bishop and of burgeses of Troy. It should be a matter of small wonder, therefore, if, under the names of Hector, Æneas, and Troilus, the courtly knight of chivalry is recognized. Such errors, and the neglect of this play, more, perhaps, than any other production of Shakspeare, to address itself to the common feelings of mankind, are the faults with which it is particularly chargeable. Its exterior is little attractive, and it is not every reader of Shakspeare who sits down to its perusal with impartial and patient attention: and yet the characters are strongly marked and skilfully contrasted; and the dialogue abounds in much fine writing and profound remarks. With what admirable terseness it is said,

“The amity, that wisdom knits not, folly may easily untie.”
(Act ii. sc. 3.)

The succeeding just reflection on due appreciation requires no apology for its citation:

“Hector. Brother, she is not worth what she doth cost,—
The holding.

“Troilus. What is aught, but as 'tis valued?

“Hector. But value dwells not in particular will;

It holds his estimate and dignity

As well wherein 'tis precious of itself

As in the prizer: 'tis mad idolatry,

To make the service greater than the god;

And the will dotes, that is attributive

To what infectiously itself affects,

Without some image of the affected merit.” (Act ii. sc. 2.)

Other passages of equal merit in this neglected play are Ulysses' argument on the necessity of a scale of rank in society*; his assertion of the superiority of the directing mind over the executing hand†; and his reflections on the endeavours which every one ought to make to keep himself in his just station in society.‡ Nestor's argument, also, on the necessity of matching Ajax against Hector, to repress the presumption of Achilles, is conceived and conducted with great ingenuity.§

* “Troy, yet upon its basis, had been down,” &c.
(Act i. sc. 3.)

† “They tax our policy, and call it cowardice,” &c.
(Act i. sc. 3.)

‡ “Time hath, my Lord, a wallet at his back.” (Act iii. sc. 3.)

§ “It is most meet: Whom may you else oppose?”
(Act i. sc. 3.)

It

'It appears from the preface to the quarto edition of this play, which was not, however, written by Shakspeare, that Troilus and Cressida was published previous to its representation; an instance, it is believed, singular in the history of our author's dramatic works. But the story had in all probability previously appeared on the stage, as two sums of money were advanced by the manager Henslow to Decker and Chettle, "in earnest of their booke called Troyeles and Creassedaye," which, if ever completed, is now no longer in existence.'

In the commentary on "Macbeth," (p. 179.) Mr. Skottowe says that, according to the mythology of the Edda, in the beautiful city Valhalla dwell three virgins, Urda (the past), Verdandi (the present), and Skulda (the future); and he adds, 'collectively they are called Valkeries, or Nornies.' This is an error. The Valkyries, or choosers of the slain, are numerous, and wholly distinct from the Nornies, or destinies, who are only three: but we agree with Mr. S. in thinking that the beings, originally supposed to have appeared to Macbeth, were these Nornies of northern mythology.

"The Winter's Tale" is after-dated by Mr. Skottowe: for surely Mr. Walpole's note had proved that the allusions to Queen Elizabeth were intended for her ear, and consequently that the play precedes 1603.

On the whole, these volumes supply, in an agreeable form, learned critical essays on the life and writings of our great dramatist; and they are well adapted for prefaces to the several plays, if a new edition of them should be undertaken by Mr. Skottowe. Controversial *variorum* notes, however, are unpleasant interruptions to the reader: only that which is necessary for interpretation should be retained at the foot of the page; and the general information concerning the source and date of the various pieces would be better given in a preliminary discourse. The author's project of arranging the plays in chronological order deserves approbation; and, although some of the dates here adopted are far from being ascertained, nothing forbids a progressive approach to the real order of production.

ART. XII. *The Bachelor's Wife*; a Selection of curious and interesting Extracts, with cursory Observations. By John Galt, Esq. Crown 8vo. pp. 450. 10s. 6d. Boards. Whitaker. 1824.

IF there be any latent facetiousness in the quaint title here assumed by Mr. Galt, we are unconscious of it: for, though the Bachelor and his wife hold much discourse on

various literary topics, their dialogue is the mere string which fastens the *fasciculus* together. The merits of the work, therefore, must be adjudged by another standard; and, considered as a scrap-book, we may say that it is among the most entertaining that have been lately published. It may, indeed, be the means of bringing into new life and preserving many agreeable pieces of poetry, and of eloquence, which, being scattered through productions either forgotten or no longer accessible, might have been, by degrees, totally lost to us if they had not found such an asylum. Mr. Galt thus states his own views:

'The book has been prepared for the parlour-table, and is likely to afford amusement, in the intervals of business, to a class of readers who would never think of looking at many of the originals from which the selections have been made. Every thing, accordingly, doubtful in principle, or questionable in tendency, has been carefully excluded; and, although it is in appearance a production of very humble pretensions, it will perhaps be found more valuable than some other publications, which the public has been so indulgent as to receive with favour.'

Of such a compilation, it is obvious that the contents must be of various and unequal merit. In the few extracts which we deem ourselves authorized to make from a work of this nature, we shall confine ourselves to those specimens of English literature which are most likely to have escaped the notice of our readers, or to have slipped from their recollection; and we begin with the stray poetry, several pieces of which are so tender and charming, that we are conscious of rendering an useful office to the public in contributing to their preservation. *Old Age* is a mournful theme: but never were its sorrows sung in sweeter verse than in the ballad which follows;

'Come any gentle poet
Who wants a mournful page,
His theme I soon will show it;
Oh, sing the woes of age!
He sure must weep for pity,
Who sings so sad a lay;
And tears, to grace his ditty,
His sorrow shall repay.

'O age is dark and dreary,
As every old man knows;
Without labour he is weary,
In rest finds no repose;
His life affords no pleasure,
For he has lived too long;
A cup with over-measure,
It falls upon the tongue.

His

- His friends long time departed,
That were so true and kind,
When children are hard-hearted,
He bears them oft in mind:
He silent sits and ponders,
In grief and helpless pride;
And as his fancy wanders,
He thinks them at his side.
- O who would strive with nature
For half an hour of gloom,
To live an abject creature,
Usurping others' room!
I seek not life, but rather
I pray to be at rest;
When friends go all together,
That voyage is surely best.

The poet's address to his works is beautiful and affecting:

- Flowers born beneath a wintry sky,
When shall ye burst the envious shade?
Or, like the bard, fore-doom'd to die,
Unseen, unhonour'd, must ye fade?
- Yet droop not hopeless round his urn,
Untimely though your blossoms fall,
Await with him the year's return,
For you nor he shall perish all.
- Sprung through a crevice of the tomb,
A solitary stem may blow,
Gay orphan of the silent gloom,
And point the humble name below.
- Some simple, unambitious strain,
Low breathed in beauty's pensive ear,
The soft complaint of tender pain,
Framed in the flowing of a tear;
- The poet's pure immortal part,
From all unhallow'd dross refined,
Shall live in many a gentle heart,
The heaven of a poetic mind.

The pretty song by Lovelace is more generally known than Mr. Galt seems to suppose, for it is to be found in Percy's Collection and in Mr. Headley's *Beauties of Ancient English Poetry*, lately re-edited by Mr. Kett of Oxford. Headley, also, whose excellent compilation contains short historical notices of the poets from whom his extracts are drawn, would have enabled Mr. Galt to have told us something about one of the most interesting characters of the time. Carew, many of whose exquisite little love-verses Mr. Galt has inserted, is mentioned by Clarendon. These intimations, we think, would

have been useful additions to the compilation, and have served as pleasing reminiscences to the general reader. — We copy the love-song of Lovelace :

‘ To Lucasta.

- “ Tell me not, sweet, I am unkind,
That from the nunnery
Of thy chaste breast, and quiet mind,
To war and arms I fly.
- “ True ; a new mistress now I chase,
The first foe in the field ;
And, with a stronger faith, embrace
A sword, a horse, a shield.
- “ Yet this inconstancy is such,
As you, too, shall adore ;
I could not love thee, dear, so much,
Loved I not honour more.”

‘ The Lawyer’s Farewell to his Muse,’ by Sir William Blackstone, is too familiar to all readers to have required a place in a collection of *rare* pieces. Doddsley’s compilation is in every library. The note concerning Littlecote House, from Sir Walter Scott’s *Rokeby*, might as well have been omitted ; for the works of the Scottish bard are too much *in ore et sermone* at present to contribute to swell a repository like that of ‘ *The Bachelor’s Wife*.’ On the other hand, we are grateful to Mr. Galt for rescuing an admirable article on Bishop Warburton and Doctor Johnson from the perishable pages of a Magazine : but we cannot afford space for more than the concluding part of the criticism.

“ To bring my observations on the characters of these great men to a close, — in Warburton, the distinguishing faculty was a fiery and ungovernable vigour of intellect, a restless and irrepressible vehemence of mind, an unquenchable and never-dormant principle of action, which required continually some fresh matter to work on, — some fresh subject to exercise its power, — some new and untried space to perambulate and to pass through ; it was an ever-working and operating faculty, an ever-moving and resisting principle, which it was impossible to tire or tame. There was nothing like rest or slumber about it : it could not stagnate, — it could not stop ; it was impossible to weaken its energies, or to contract their operation. No matter was too tough for its force ; no metal too unamalleable for its strokes.

“ Such was the elasticity of its constitution, that it could not be broken ; such was its innate and surpassing resistibility of temperament, that it could not be overwhelmed. Entangle it with subtleties, and it immediately snapt asunder its bonds, as Sampson burst the encompassing cords of the Philistine. Bury it with learning, and it immediately mounted up with the brilliancy and rapidity

rapidity of a sky-rocket, and scattered about its sparks and scintillations, which lightened the whole atmosphere of literature. It was this volatility of spirit, this forcible and indomitable action of mind, this never-tiring and never-weakening intellectual energy, this bounding and unceasing mental elasticity, which serves to distinguish Warburton not only from Dr. Johnson, but also from all the characters who have ever appeared in literature; and it is to the self-corroding effect of these qualities, that his alienation of mind at the later period of his life is undoubtedly to be attributed.

“The mind of Johnson, on the contrary, was utterly devoid of all that intellectual activity and elasticity which Warburton possessed. There was about it an habitual and dogged sluggishness, an inert and listless torpor, a reluctance to call forth its energies and exercise its powers; it slumbered, but its slumbers were those of a giant. With more of positive force when called into action, it had not the same principle of motion, the same continual beat, the same sleepless inquietude and feverish excitement. It lay there like the Leviathan, reposing amidst the depths of the ocean, till necessity drove it out to display the magnitude of his strength. The one waited quietly in its den for food, while the other prowled about continually for prey. To the latter, inaction was impossible; to the former, voluntary exertion was unknown. Solidity and condensation were the qualities of the one; continued vigour and pliability the characteristics of the other. The one, as a machine, was more clumsy in its movements; the other, more light and unencumbered, but less effectual in its operation; the forces of the one were more scattered, the resources of the other less alert. In Warburton, there was a boundless fertility of vigour, which ripened up into all the rankness of rich luxuriance. In Johnson, the harvest of intellect was not so spontaneous, nor perhaps its fertility so great; but when once raised, it never required the hand of the weeder, but rose unmixed with tares. The genius of the one, like a cascade, threw up its water in the air, which glistened in the sun, and shone with the variety of ten thousand hues and colourings; while the talents of the other never exerted themselves, without joining at the same time utility with splendour. The one, like the gladiator of Lysippus, had every nerve in motion, and every muscle flexible with elasticity; while in the other, like the colossal statues of Michael Angelo, all was undivided energy and bursting strength.

“Such were the characters of these great men, of whom it is difficult to decide which was the greater, or which possessed, in a greater portion, those qualities which give a title to intellectual supremacy. The fame of Johnson will hereafter principally rest on his productions as a moralist and a critic; while that of Warburton, when again revived, will as certainly be raised on the foundation of his theological writings. Whatever may be thought of the truth of some of his theories, or the unseemliness of some of his attacks, it is impossible to deny that his *Alliance* and *Divine Legation* are the most splendid, the most original, the most ingenious

nious defences of our ecclesiastical establishment, and of Revelation itself, that ever man constructed. On these, as on the sure and unchangeable evidences of his powers, his admirers may depend for his reception with posterity; with whom, when the name of Johnson, rich in the accumulated tributes of time, shall hereafter be accounted the mightiest amongst those 'who have given ardour to virtue, and confidence to truth;' then shall the name of Warburton, also, purified from the stains which have obscured and sullied its lustre, be numbered amongst the brightest lights of the Protestant church,—amongst the greatest of those who have adorned it by their genius, or exalted it by their learning, a worthy accession to the mighty fellowship and communion of Episcopi, Chillingworth, and Hooker.”

On the whole, as books must be manufactured in an age of which the great epidemic is book-making; as Mr. Galt has been strongly seized with that direful contagion; and as *peritura parcere charta* is not the virtue of the day; we are inclined to express our approbation of his compilement, and to recommend it to the place on the parlour-table for which it was designed, and to which its merits, humble as they are, justly entitle it.

ART. XIII. *Seventeenth Report of the Directors of the African Institution*, read at the Annual General Meeting on the 16th Day of May, 1823. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Hatchard.

Eighteenth Report of the Directors of the African Institution, read at the Annual General Meeting on the 11th Day of May, 1824. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Hatchard.

THE progress, which the cause of the abolition of the slave-trade has been making during the last two years, is great as far as we consider the authority of general opinion throughout Europe, or the declarations of the governments themselves: but no such actual diminution of the traffic has taken place as we might have expected from the *apparent* concurrence of the principal cabinets, or as may be pronounced commensurate with the zeal and humanity of the abolitionists. We shall state the good omens first, and then contrast with them some actual details of a very different character.

In Spain, all captains, masters, and pilots of vessels engaged in the African slave-trade are rendered liable to forfeit their vessels, and to be sentenced to ten years' hard labour in the public works. In Portugal, fresh articles have been settled for enlarging the power of cruisers. In France, the Committee, which was instituted at Paris about two years ago for the abolition of the slave-trade, has published several valuable tracts, and has offered a prize of a thousand francs for

for the best work on that subject, composed with reference to the interests of that country. The King of Sweden has declared that Swedish and Norwegian vessels employed in the slave-trade shall lose the royal protection. Lastly, the United States have concurred with England in treating as piracy all slave-trading by any of their subjects, under any flag, or in any part of the world.

To this extent the accounts look favourable: but, on the other hand, it appears that the execution of the Spanish decree is not intrusted to any particular department, and that, no reward being offered to the informer, the law is a mere dead letter. As to the dependencies of Portugal, it appears that, in the year 1822, 28,246 slaves were imported into Rio Janeiro alone from the coast of Africa; that the number embarked had been 31,240, 3484 having died on the passage; and that the number imported into Bahia in the same year was upwards of 8000. The extent of the slave-trade carried on by French ships has been and continues to be *atrocious*; for the number of slave-cargoes taken by them out of the river Bonny in the year 1821 was ascertained to amount to 121, and from the Calabar river in the same year to 162. The extent of the trade subsequently to that period is very great, but it has not been precisely ascertained.

To shew that this traffic, when pursued evasively and covertly, is not alleviated with respect to the situation of the *cargo*, and that it is much aggravated in guilt by the circumstances of fraud and perjury which it involves, we shall make an extract relating to the Portuguese vessels condemned at Sierra Leone.

‘ During the year 1822, thirteen Portuguese slave-ships, having on board upwards of 1700 slaves, were condemned at Sierra Leone, for trading in slaves north of the Line. Some of the cases involved perjuries without end, and atrocities of the most outrageous and revolting kind, and implicated in the guilt attending them Portuguese functionaries on the coast of Africa of the very highest class; and all of the cases afforded proofs of the most reprehensible disregard, on the part of the Brazilian authorities, of the stipulations of the treaties with this country. The licences granted to these ships permitted them, while their destination was declared to be to Africa south of the line, to visit St. Thomas's, Cameroons, Calabar, &c., which no motive could be assigned for their visiting, but that of carrying on an illicit slave-trade. Nay, the authorities in Brazil appear to have concurred with the contrabandists, in giving fictitious names to places north of the Line, borrowed from places south of the Line, for the purpose of deceiving the British cruisers and the Mixed Commission Courts. The name of Molembo, a place south of the Line, to which the Portuguese
slave-

slave-trade is still permitted, has been transferred, for this profligate purpose, to a place near Onim, in the Bight of Benin.

In the case of one vessel, the *Conde de Villa Flor*, taken with 172 slaves on board, it was fully proved, "that the Governor of Bissao was himself an interested participator in the illegal embarkation of slaves, a certain number of the slaves being his property; some of them being entered in the memoranda as shipped and received from his official residence, — as if all decency was cast off from the government of the settlement." Such is the strong, but most appropriate, language of the Judge of the Mixed Commission Court. The examinations in this case develop the most complicated tissue of fraudulent expedients for defeating the ends of justice; — among them, fabricated log-books, exhibiting a voyage from the Brazils to Cabenda, by way of the Cape de Verdes, when the real destination was Bissao; and schedules pointing out the bribes by which the connivance of the Judge, Governor, &c. was to be secured at the port of discharge in the Brazils. This vessel had already made several very successful and gainful voyages under the shelter of these ingenious expedients. The owner, in one of his letters, declared his intention of putting an end, by this voyage, to his course of slave-trading, as, "provided," he says, "that it were the pleasure of the Almighty that every thing should be placed in safety, they would have reaped a good harvest." In consequence, it may be presumed, of his capture on this occasion, which prevented his gathering the fruits he had anticipated, he appears, by the *Sierra Leone Gazette*, to have returned to the coast in the succeeding year, and to have successfully effected another voyage.'—

* The Portuguese schooner-boat, *San Jose Xalaca*, belonging to a lady of Prince's Island, the daughter of Gomez, formerly the governor and still a member of the governing junta of that island, though only of the burden of seven tons, was sent to Calabar for slaves. Thirty slaves were purchased, and, having been put on board the boat, it made sail for Prince's Island. But the voyage proved tedious; provisions began to fail, and the allowance of food was reduced to one yam daily for two slaves. At last the provisions and water wholly failed. Ten slaves perished; and the whole must have shared their fate, had not the vessel got back to Calabar, after having been six weeks at sea. The surviving slaves were in the most deplorable state of emaciation and wretchedness. Nor was this to be wondered at; for, besides their privations, they were manacled together, and cooped up in a vessel of only seven tons' burthen; having no shelter but what could be afforded by the space between the water casks and the deck, a space of seven inches!

These facts speak for themselves, and cry aloud for a total extinction of this abominable trade. Imagination cannot conceive any other traffic in all its details so calculated to pervert and degrade every feeling of human nature. It is rapine purveying human victims for tyranny: the merchant stoops

stoops to be a dealer in the blood of his fellow-men; the crew are changed into depredators and pirates; while the most innocent and helpless of God's creatures are treated as felons and outcasts from the world, and are dragged from their homes to the scourge of unfeeling task-masters in an unknown land. It is a process of which every part tends equally to brutalize the actors and the sufferers; and the permanence of such a trade, after its enormities have been exposed and its continuance nominally disavowed by every civilized state, is the grandest triumph which the demon of lucre can boast of having attained over the conscience and heart of man. Such a confederacy of Mammon and Moloch defies the progress of knowledge, and laughs to scorn the gentle spirit of religion. Even the ignominy of piracy seems only to render the adventurers more desperate; and in proportion as the atrocities of the traffic are exposed and condemned by one common sentiment, it is prosecuted with aggravated hardihood. On the other hand, the well-directed zeal of those who devote their time, their labor, and their wealth, to forward the cause of the abolition, thus impeded and thwarted when the appearances of success were most favorable, deserves the warm thanks and the admiration of all who are well-wishers to the improvement of the human race. It is a cause in which the coldest and most calculating moralists will admit that charity may be administered without prejudice, and that real good may be effected to their fellow-creatures; and which at the same time gives such scope to the most benevolent philanthropists, that they may exercise their zeal without fear of intemperance, and indulge not only unblamed but meritoriously in the full ardor of enthusiasm.

ART. XIV. *Nugæ Chirurgicæ*; or, a Biographical Miscellany, illustrative of a Collection of Professional Portraits. By William Wadd, Esq. F. L. S. Surgeon Extraordinary to the King, &c. 8vo. pp. 276. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1824.

THE possession of a numerous collection of prints, drawings, and pictures of medical men, has naturally led Mr. Wadd to collect and arrange a variety of anecdotes respecting the subjects of these portraits; and the result of this amusing occupation is now offered to the public.

* In the compilation of this work, it has been the author's endeavour to blend the "utile" with the "dulce;" and he has at least succeeded, so far as regards himself, in acquiring an acquaintance with the *Medici family* (not Mr. Roscoe's), and has familiarised himself both with the learned and the ignorant, the
re-

regulars and the irregulars, of his profession; in short, with *what* may be denominated the Republic of Medicine: for he has looked at them till he could identify the very wigs that would have met together in a consultation, from the time of Radcliffe and Garth down to Pitcairn and Fothergill.

And here the author would fain deprecate, in the words of Andrew Borde, the anger of those "egregious doctors, and masters of the eximious and arcane science of physic," who might otherwise "exasperate themselves against him for writing of this little volume," by stating, that he has refrained from decanting upon the merits of living characters, further than by transcribing, in some few instances, the testimony that others have borne to their worth and abilities.

Mr. Wadd has embraced the whole range of the profession, from Hippocrates down to the present day; and he has not disdained to notice and record the extravagances of some of the most egregious quacks and nostrum-venders. The catalogue is arranged alphabetically, but is divided, for no reason which we can discover, into two alphabets or parts; the first intitled *Memoirs Medical and Chirurgica*, the second *Memorabilia*: the former consisting chiefly of brief notices of the portraits, and the latter wholly of biography and anecdotes. — The volume contains many interesting facts, illustrative of the very low state in which surgery continued to exist for some time after its first origin as an art; as well as of the various changes by which it attained at length its present elevated station, and its claim to be ranked among the sciences. The necessity for penal enactments to protect the lieges against the numerous ignorant and worthless individuals, who have in all ages arrogated to themselves the right to practise the art of healing, is curiously proclaimed in the edict of Philip le Bel, dated November, 1311.

The sovereign, informed of the robberies which are committed in the profession of surgery, disgraced as it is by a swarm of practitioners who may be characterised as *Murderers, Thieves, Carners of base money, Alchemists, and Rogues*, some of whom have merited *hanging*, others *banishment*; the sovereign, to prevent these disorders, wills that in the city and district of Paris, no surgeon, male or female, shall have the power, henceforwards, to be termed *Licentia*, to perform any act of surgery, unless he or she shall have been previously examined and approved of by the sworn masters in surgery, called and convoked for this purpose by *Maitre Jean Pitard*, surgeon to his majesty and to the châtelet of Paris, or his successors.

Of the early state of surgery in England, some idea may be formed from the following particulars respecting John Halle:

“ Master

"Master John Halle, a most famous man," was one of the first English surgeons who attempted to treat on anatomy, which Halle did, very much to his own satisfaction, in a "Very useful and necessarie briefe Worke of Anatomie;" he saying, that it was a more useful and profitable one of the kind, than any that had hitherto been published in the English language. A notion of the previous state of anatomical works may be formed, when it is stated that this satisfactory performance contained two rude wood-cuts, exhibiting a front and back view of the human figure, with a few references to the names of the external parts.

At this time surgery was distinct from medicine, but united with the office and occupation of the barber; *capitis rasura* being expressly mentioned in a warrant issued to the king's surgeons, 1454, as part of their duty.

The state of surgery, therefore, was such as might naturally be expected; "many rotted and perished for lack of help of surgery, and daily died." To remedy these evils, the Honourable Baron John Lord Lumley, and the learned Richard Caldwell, doctor in physick, did institute a public lecture to be read in surgery, in Knight-Rider-Street, Wednesday and Friday, the reader whereof was to be Richard Foster, doctor of physick, during his life; and Stow, vol. ii. p. 209., informs us, that this learned person was met by the chief members of the barbers' company, two of whom, being called Masters of the Body, put in practice, or demonstrated, what the Doctor directed.

Many chirurgical works of this date are lost; but we may judge of the library of Barbers' Hall by those that have come down to us; such as Arderne, John of Gadesden, Gale, Halle, Vicary, Rawlyng's "Booke of Medycene," 1573; Phayer's "Declaration of the Veynes of Man's Body, and to what Dyseases the Opening every One of them doe Service," 1544; and Turner's "Herbal." Of those that are lost to posterity may be mentioned "A Booke in Chirurgery," by Thomas Morstede, surgeon to Henry VI., and the "Booke of Fysyk and Surgery," called "*Rosse and Constantine*," given, by will of Thomas Colard, barber, 1467, to the barbers' company.

The barber-surgeons existed as a corporation till the year 1745, and counted in their number some very eminent men, among whom we may mention the great Cheselden. Mr. Wadd says it appears, from Brand's History of Newcastle,

"That there was a branch of the fraternity in that place, as at a meeting, 1742, of the barber-chirurgeons, it was ordered, that they should not shave on a Sunday, and "that no brother shave John Robinson, till he pays what he owes to Robert Shafto." Speaking of the "grosse ignorance of the barbers," a facetious author says, "This puts me in minde of a barber who, after he had cupped me (as the physitian had prescribed), to turne away a catarrhe, asked me if I would he sacrificed. Scarified, said I? Did the phisitian tell you any such thing? No (quoth he), but I have sacrificed many, who have been the better for it. Then musing

musings a little with myself I told him, surely, Sir, you mistake yourself, you mean *sacrificed*. O, Sir, by your favour (quoth he), I have ever heard it called sacrificing; and as for scarifying, I never heard of it before. In a word, I could by no means persuade him, but that it was the barber's office to *sacrifice* men. Since which time I never saw any man in a barber's hands, but that *sacrificing* barber came to my mind."

Among the changes which have taken place in the practice of surgery, it is curious to trace that which respects the use of the lancet. Lanfranc, who flourished about the close of the thirteenth century, says, "Formerly physicians exercised the operations of surgery, and did not think it beneath them to bleed their patients themselves; but now it is given up into the hands of the barbers. As for me, I always bled my patients with my own hand, and do it more skillfully than the most famous barbers."

Mr. W. adds that Sir Cæsar Hawkins, who retired from business about the year 1777, realized not less than a thousand guineas *per annum* by the use of his lancet; and, in the present day, the practice of phlebotomy, at least in the metropolis, is almost wholly relinquished to the apothecaries.

The absurd translations of the names of medical men, which were in former days given sometimes even by themselves, are sufficiently ridiculous. Dr. Flood is termed *De Fluctibus*; — Andrew Borde, *Andreas Perforatus*; — Parkinson, *Paradisus in Sole*; — and Dr. Case, *Casus*. Granger relates that, at a merry meeting, when this Dr. Case, or Cheese, as he is occasionally called, and the famous Dr. Radcliffe, were present, Radcliffe thus began a health: "Here, brother Case, to all the fools your patients." To which the shrewd quack replied, "I thank you, good brother, let me have all the fools, and you are heartily welcome to the rest of the practice."

A handsome and just tribute of praise is paid by this author to the amiable and excellent Baillie.

"Dr. Johnson has said, that "a physician in a great city is the mere plaything of fortune; his degree of reputation is for the most part casual; they that employ him know not his excellence, they that reject him know not his deficiency;" but Baillie was the physician of the profession, the elect of those who were able to appreciate talent, and greater praise cannot be given. It is true the fortuitous circumstance of Pitcairn's retirement brought him suddenly from teaching the elements of his art to the active practice of it. He was prepared, however, to take the highest post, by a life devoted to science, by many valuable endowments, and, above all, by some of the most amiable qualities that adorn the human character. He was, in every point, a safe man to the patient and to the practitioner.

‘ Dr. Baillie is one of the few instances of opulence being obtained solely by medical practice ; for few indeed are they among the professors of science, when compared with the mercantile crowd, who are enabled to offer at that shrine, which is the general criterion of modern greatness.’

Many of the notices give merely names : occasionally, we detect an absolute *hiatus* ; and with regard to living men, the writer has been prudently “ sparing of words.” Altogether, however, we thank Mr. Wadd for the entertainment which he has afforded us ; and we have pleasure in recommending the perusal of his work to those who would pass away an hour agreeably, and still professionally, when the fatigues of the day’s business are closed.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR DECEMBER, 1824.

POETRY and the DRAMA.

Art. 15. *Australia* ; with other Poems. By Thomas K. Hervey, Trinity College, Cambridge. Crown 8vo. 6s. Boards. Hurst and Co. 1824.

We have here a poem of considerable but unequal merit. Its subject relates to those vast tracts of country lately discovered in the Pacific, Indian, and Southern oceans, called Australasia ; comprizing the central or chief land of New Holland, Papua, New Britain, and New Ireland ; with the Solomon isles, New Caledonia, and the New Hebrides ; New Zealand, Van Dieman’s Land, Kerguelen’s islands, and those of St. Paul and Amsterdam, besides numerous reefs and islets of coral scattered over the Australian seas. In a well-written preface, Mr. Hervey thus speaks of these singular formations of coral ; and he alludes to them at the conclusion of his poem :

‘ There is not a more sublime theory in geography than the one alluded to in the conclusion of this poem. There is scarcely a league in the Pacific or Indian oceans which is not spotted by a coral formation, in one or other of its various stages of progression, — from a mere rock, just shewing its head above water, to a fertile and inhabited island. For an account of these corals, and their wonderful labours, the reader is referred to Captain Flinders’s narrative of his voyage in the Pacific ; and, also, to the Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica. Their slow and imperceptible toil is continually raising new structures throughout these seas : which harden with time, and become solid and ever-increasing masses, from the base to the summit : till, visited by the birds of ocean, they receive from them the seeds of trees and plants from adjacent islands ; and exhibit, by degrees, all the beauties of vegetation, — inviting some wandering tribe to come

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and fix its habitation among their primæval fruits and flowers. Whether the whole of the islands throughout these seas are the result of a process like this, it is impossible to determine, with such data as we at present possess : — but it is to this theory, in its extent, that an allusion is likewise made towards the close of the first part of this poem. To the eye of geologists the isles of Sunda, the Moluccas, and others in the Indian Ocean, are gradually enlarging ; and the time *must come*, — however remote, — when Australasia and Polynesia, with the Asiatic islands, will unite to form one vast continent with Asia, — excepting where the currents, created by these very causes, shall operate to prevent their universal extension. However overwhelming may be the idea of the disproportion between the agent and the effect, — a world built by atoms ! — this result is *physically certain* ; and the waters of the ocean, in their search for a new bed, must destroy one of the old continents. The theory is somewhat more arbitrary which assigns that fate to *Africa* ; but it proceeds upon the supposition that the most useless and exhausted will perish. In this case, the Atlantic, Indian, and Southern oceans will be united ; and — owing to the rapid progress which is now making in the moral and religious cultivation of America — the time will probably come when (upon the foregoing supposition) Asia will be the only unchristianized portion of the globe. As, however, it would then be embraced on all sides by Christian nations, the author has ventured to render the preceding theory available for the purposes of poetry ; and to couple it with that scriptural prophecy which proclaims the universal extension of Christianity over the whole earth, — a prophecy, in the fulfilment of which, Britain (from her labours in the East and in the West) is, in every point of view, entitled to the principal share of merit, as an agent.

It is necessary that the poet should lift up the veil of futurity, in order to sing the glories of Australasia. Accordingly, Mr. Hervey begins with an apostrophe to Great Britain, the fountain of those glories, and looks ‘on Australasia in the east, like America in the west, — as on a young and promising nation, giving in the vigour of its youth the pledge of a glorious maturity, destined to act a mighty part upon the theatre of the world.’ The commencement of the poem, in which Great Britain is invoked, is spirited, but diffuse. We insert a part of it.

‘ Isle of the ocean ! Zion of the seas !
 Child of the waves ! and nursling of the breeze !
 How beauteous, Albion ! on thy lonely steep,
 Thou risest, like a vision, in the deep !
 The temple of the brave, the good, the free,
 Built by some spirit in the circling sea ! —
 Still hast thou floated, like a thing of light,
 Through all the darkness of the moral night ;
 Alone upon the waves, — the hallowed ark
 Where Freedom sheltered when the world was dark ;
 Bade exiled Piety, Truth, Valour, come,
 And every bleeding virtue find a home ;

While

While Science left her eastern home for thee,
 And nestled, like the halcyon, in the sea !
 Above thee, gentlest airs, in gladness, meet ;
 The billows break, in music, at thy feet ;
 And heaven's purest dews, and holiest dyes,
 Weep on thy breast, and brighten in thy skies !
 ' Rome of the waters ! on thy sea-girt rock,
 Far from the battle, and the tempest's shock,
 Thou sittest proudly, on thine ocean-throne,
 A sceptred queen, majestic and alone !
 In fairy state, on emerald couch reclined,
 Rocked by the waves, and cradled in the wind !
 Far o'er the deep thy crimson flag, unfurled,
 Streams, like a meteor, to the gazing world :
 With stately necks and bounding motion, ride
 Thy gallant barks, like swans, upon the tide ;
 Lift up their swelling bosoms to the sky,
 And spread their wings, to woo the gales from high.
 ' From clime to clime thy hardy children roam,
 The wave their world, — the ship their island-home, —
 Where'er the waters in their wildness roar,
 Or lead their surges to the sounding shore ;
 Wherever winds lift up their song on high,
 Or Mercy paints an Iris in the sky ;
 Where o'er the burning line the billows roll,
 Or lash themselves to madness at the Pole ;
 Through seas o'er which the spirit of the north
 Marshals his clouds, and sends his icebergs forth ;
 Where the dark waves, without a tempest, roar,
 As avalanches thunder from the shore ;
 'Mid everlasting cones that rise sublime,
 The trophies and the monuments of time,
 Sparkle like sapphire-temples in the sun,
 And make a daylight when the day is done ;
 Where, in the heaven while meteor phantoms fly,
 A thousand points reflect them ere they die,
 And crystal pyramids and icy spires
 Receive, and then fling back, the parting fires ;
 Where mountain-snows, by ages piled on high,
 And glacier turrets, towering to the sky,
 Return, in dazzling hues, the rushing light,
 And shine, like moons, along the brow of night ;
 Where in the zenith smiles the polar star ;
 While the cold sun looks dimly from afar,
 Obliquely scans the drear horizon round,
 And flings *Periscian* shadows on the ground : —
 Or, where he flashes summer through the sky,
 While all its blooms burst forth beneath his eye ;
 Where faints the magnet 'mid the burning zone,
 Rul'd by a power mysterious as its own ;
 Where glow the midnight waves in liquid flame,
 And heaven is gemm'd with stars without a name. —

Through hurricanes by night, and calms by day,
 Thy gallant children win their steady way;
 Borne by the billows, wafted by the breeze,
 Thy forests float through undiscovered seas,
 Explore the mines where Science hides her stores,
 And waft her treasures to thy island-shores.

‘Gem of the ocean! Empress of the sea!
 My heart could weep in fondness over thee;
 My soul looks forward, through a mist of tears,
 To pierce the darkness of the coming years,
 And dimly reads, amid the future gloom,
 Warnings she dares not utter of thy doom.
 And canst thou perish, island of the free?
 Shall ruin dare to fling her shroud o’er thee?
 Thou who dost light the nations, like a star,
 In solitary grandeur, from afar!
 Thou who hast been, indeed, the pillar’d light
 For Israel’s sons, in Superstition’s night!
 Can Desolation reach thy hallowed strand,
 While Shakespeare’s spirit breathes along the land,
 While time o’er Milton’s grave fleets powerless by,
 And Newton’s memory links thee with the sky?’

The following allusion to the eastern islands, the Polynesia, has some faults and affectations, but is on the whole pleasing:

‘Isles of the Orient! — gardens of the East!
 Thou giant secret of the liquid waste,
 Long ages in untrodden paths concealed,
 Or, but in glimpses faint and few revealed,
 Like some chimera of the ocean-caves,
 Some dark and sphinx-like riddle of the waves,
 Till he — the northern *Oedipus* — unfurled
 His venturous sail, and solved it to the world!
 Surpassing beauty sits upon thy brow,
 But darkness veils thy all of time, save now;
 Enshrouded in the shadows of the past,
 And secret in thy birth as is the blast.
 If, when the waters and the land were weighed,
 Thy vast foundations in the deep were laid;
 Or, ‘mid the tempests of a thousand years,
 Where through the depths her shell the mermaid steers,
 Mysterious workmen wrought unseen at thee,
 And reared thee, like a Babel, in the sea:
 If *Afric’s* dusky children sought the soil
 Which yields her fruits without the tiller’s toil;
 Or, southward wandering on his dubious way,
 Came to thy blooming shores the swarth Malay:
 ’Tis darkness all: — long years have o’er thee rolled,
 Their flight unnoted, and their tale untold:
 But beautiful thou art, as Fancy deems
 The visioned regions of her sweetest dreams;

Fair

Fair as the Moslem, in his fervour, paints
 The promised vallies of his prophet's saints;
 Bright with the brightness which the poet's eye
 Flings o'er the long-lost bowers of Araby; —
 The soul of beauty haunts thy sunny glades;
 The soul of music whispers through thy shades;
 And Nature, gazing on her loveliest plan,
 Sees all supremely excellent — but Man!

Of the minor poems we shall say nothing, and our opinion of them must be inferred from our silence. Whether Mr. H.'s 'Australia' was one of the unsuccessful candidates for the prize lately awarded at Cambridge on the same subject, he does not tell us: — but it certainly exhibits considerable powers, if not of poetry, at least of poetic diction.

Art. 16. *The Castle of Despair*; or, a Vision of Chancery: an Allegorical Poem, in Three Cantos. By the Reverend J. Holme. 12mo. pp. 91. Sold by all Booksellers. 1824.

In the outset of this poetical attempt to elucidate the "ways of law to man," the author takes care to acquaint the reader with a fact extremely clear and palpable on opening the work; — 'that he will not fail to perceive in the exordium of this poem a resemblance to that of "The Castle of Indolence," by James Thomson; and it is but fair to admit that the same work suggested the idea of the present.' It may be but fair, likewise, to add that here all comparison between the two productions ceases; the imitation, in point of allegorical truth and nature, by no means trenching on the well-earned reputation of Mr. H.'s predecessor. In fact, though some of the descriptions of legal characters, customs, and perversities, with all the ruinous vexations of "the law's delay," are often rather happily and humorously told, and the satirical reflections are but too well merited, yet the symbolical portion of the poem is by no means so well maintained. We are at times, also, not a little involved by confusion of imagery: the figurative falls into pure description; and the metaphors are often far from being very striking, or very just. There is evidently, likewise, a sort of political twist in the author's way of viewing things; arising, perhaps, out of party-prejudice, which leads him to look even on the best side of power in the church, the senate, and the courts of law, with a jaundiced eye. — An idea of the whole may be gathered from a brief extract or two from the most satirical or entertaining passages which the work affords. Of this kind is some of the following:

' Oh, what a proud prerogative it is,
 To stand between th' oppressor and opprest?
 What more, than mortal fame, were, justly, *his*,
 Who should not stand, *stock-still*; but, in his breast,
 Arouse the lion; and confound the nest
 Of harpies, who are *fattened* on delays;
 Till ruin stares, ere wrongs can be redrest,
 Poor suitors in the face; and end their days
 In wretchedness and want; or desperation days!

- This were the *conscience royal* to adorn,
And make its lustre, as its meaning, bright;
To bid th' effulgence of the fairest morn
Rise on the gloom of that infernal night,
Which, palpably, o'erspreads the foulest blight;
Still hovering o'er our hopes, with *raven wing* :
This were the *realms of woe* to bless with light;
The lowest vallies teach to laugh and sing;
Despondency bid hope; and bless the name of king.
- And who, that has a *conscience* of his own,
Or wish to dignify declining age,
Would e'er permit the *conscience of the crown* ; —
That *royal lion*, who, with *generous rage*,
Should endless war against *oppression wage*,
To be a terror to the *weak* alone;
To be a *showman's* lion; and his cage
Ne'er opened; nor the royal prisoner shewn;
Except to those, whose *worth* their purse, in hand, makes
known.
- To be a name that fills the heart with dread,
Instead of teaching it, with hope, to beat;
To be an *ægis* with *Medusa's* head,
Before the powerful held, to frown defeat,
On all that dare with hostile eye to meet:
But to the weak, instead of such a shield,
Against the arm of power and lawless heat;
A two-edged sword, which, if he dares to wield,
Back falls upon himself, with stroke that *can't be healed*, &c.

Though the wit and satire are not here of the first stamp, the subject and the manner of treating it are calculated to amuse the leisure hours of an idle student at the bar: but it would be still better if some of the more shrewd and serious portions could rouse the conscience of practitioners to a sense of the injustice of the law's intricacies and delays, though the advice is couched in language by no means very qualified or very polished.

Art. 17. *The Silent River*; a Dramatic Poem. Faithful and Forsaken; a Dramatic Poem. By Robert Sullivan. 12mo. pp. 108. Whittaker. 1824.

A dramatic poem is so distinct from a drama, that the talents which are sufficient for the composition of the one by no means prove that their possessor is competent to the production of the other. In a dramatic poem, we do not expect the nice management of an intricate plot, or the subtle and skilful developement of various character; it is rather a simple narrative thrown into a dramatic form, without regard to the canons of dramatic criticism. Whether Mr. Sullivan, who has selected the more humble style of composition, would have succeeded so well had he attempted the drama itself, we have some doubts; and we should have been sorry if we had found him applying himself to a task to which he

was

was in any degree unequal, when he was capable of affording so much pleasure as all readers of taste and feeling must experience in the perusal of his 'Dramatic Poems.' A degree of simplicity truth, and natural power, prevails in them, which reminds us powerfully of our older writers, and induces us to think that Mr. Sullivan may one day rank highly among the poets of his country. 'The Silent River' is perhaps the most finished and impressive of the two poems: but that which is intitled 'Faithful and Forsaken' displays a richer and warmer imagination. In the following extract, we give a portion of the scene between the 'forsaken' and her forsaker.

' *Annabelle.* Welcome, dear Eustache!
We have been strange of late.
' *Eustache.* I have deserved
Reproach, and have fear'd to meet it, Annabelle.
' *Annabelle.* Reproach from me! O, never!
' *Eustache.* Then you cease
To love?
' *Annabelle.* It is a useless question. Fear not,
I can be constant and ask no return.
' *Eustache.* I am a wretch whom you should scorn, not love,
And scarce have virtue to declare my vileness.
' *Annabelle.* Needs there excuse to me for choosing her
Whom you love best? Did I not always pray
That no devotion to a hasty promise
Should be as fatal to yourself as want
Of worth to me? Indeed, most dear Eustache,
I shall be happier to see you happy
With her you love, than wretched with myself.
' *Eustache.* Fame then hath spared me the hard task of
speaking
My own disgrace. What shall I say, thou dear one?
(For dear thou art, though I am false to thee,)
Entreat thee to forget? I who besought
Thy love so long, — and bade thee swear, and told thee
What years of paradise each broken vow,
Like a loosed fiend, drove withering from thy hopes!
And shall I urge thee to receive some other,
Who more deserves thee, to thy wounded bosom?
I who so often sigh'd upon that altar
My shadowy jealousy? My causeless dreams,
Of where thou *might'st* have lavish'd thy young tenderness,
Had we ne'er met? I who did fear to die
Lest I should leave my sacred place to one
Who might more dearly fill it?
' *Annabelle.* O hush, hush!
Though I must love to hear of other times,
I would not buy the pleasure at thy pain.
Why should'st thou look back? Thou who hast so much
Of joy before thee?

‘ *Eustache.* Joy for me? — in what?
 In constant fears that those in whom I trust
 Will leave me to the loneliness of those
 Who trusted *me*? Is there a spot on earth,
 A hue in heaven, which hath not something in it
 Which we have dwelt upon together? Something
 To frown remembrance, penitence, inquietude?
 Is there a virtue blooming in the world
 Which will not show thee in thy meek forgiveness?
 Is there a crime which will not make me shrink
 By claiming kindred with the one ‘gainst *thee*?
 Is there a beauty, bright above the rest,
 Which will not tell me she whom I deserted
 Possess’d it in a blush more paramount?
 O, Annabelle! I came to thee with trembling,
 But still prepared, and anxious for reproach;
 Not to be cursed with pardon.

‘ *Annabelle.* Must I not
 Remain your friend? — This morn, while yet the sun
 Dwelt with a crimson mist upon our vineyard,
 And purple clouds, like happy lovers, stole
 With smiles and tears into each other’s bosom,
 I threw my lattice wide to drink the stream
 Of liquid odours rolling from the south;
 And then came mixed with it a marriage-song,
 Whose distant melody did seem to dance
 Upon a hundred lips of youthful revelry,
 And belis and flageolets, and all the sounds
 Befitting happiness and summer sunshine.
 ’Twas a strange thing to weep at, yet I wept, —
 I know not why. — Some weep for grief, and some
 For joy, — but I for neither, or for both,
 Mix’d in a feeling more beloved than either,
 Which weigh’d my heart down like a drooping bough
 O’erloaded with its luxury of roses.
 And then — and then — the thoughts of silly maids
 Run wilder than these roving vines, — I found
 My hands were clasp’d together, and my spirit
 Stole from my eyes with a dim sense of prayer,
 Which had no words. I begg’d a gentle fortune
 Upon the newly wedded, — pray’d I not
 For *thee*, Eustache?’

The first poem is said to have been ‘written among the scenes in which it is laid;’ and of the other Mr. Sullivan believes the story to be true.

SLAVERY.

Art. 18. *Is the System of Slavery sanctioned or condemned by Scripture?* To which is subjoined an Appendix, containing Two Essays on the State of the Canaanite and Philistine Bondsmen under the Jewish Theocracy. 8vo. pp. 92. Arch. 1824.

Art. 19. *Observations upon Slavery*; setting forth that to hold the Principle of Slavery is to deny Christ. By Robert Lindoe, M. D., Author of "An Essay on Peace and War." 8vo. pp. 34. Hatchard and Son. 1824.

Few arguments surely can be required to convince a man of dispassionate judgment, that the system of slavery is as much opposed to the maxims of religion as to the dictates of justice and humanity; and yet we find its advocates confidently referring to the sacred writings, in support of an institution directly at variance with the first and most important principles which those writings inculcate. We are informed that the people of God held their brothers in bondage; and even the Christian dispensation is said to sanction personal servitude. To tell the persons who argue thus that, even if slavery were recognized among the Jews, this is no reason why it should be suffered to exist at the present day, is an answer to which they pay very little regard: for they rest on the authority of Scripture, and are satisfied.

It is therefore no mean service to the cause of truth and humanity to expose the falsehood of these opinions; and to prove, as the able writer of the first of the pamphlets now before us has proved, that the system of slavery, as it exists in the present age, is clearly condemned by the authority of Scripture. A not inconsiderable degree of biblical learning was required to explain, in the detailed and accurate manner which this writer has adopted, the particular nature and character of bondage among the Jews; which differed in almost every essential point from the slavery that exists in the English colonies. The following short summary exhibits the principal features of the Jewish bondage:

'We trust that the points we commenced by asserting have now been fully proved, viz.

'That servitude was in Judæa always voluntary, or else inflicted as a judicial punishment.

'That it was in either circumstance only temporary, and was in every case cancelled by gross ill usage.

'That the civil and religious privileges of each in Judæa, whether Hebrews or strangers, though different, were yet equally assured to them.

'That the law of God assured to slaves, equally with masters, a full participation in every religious and civil privilege belonging to their class.

'That the state of servitude implied no personal degradation, but that servants and freemen equally formed one social body, the members of which were continually interchanging.'

We understand that this tract is the production of a lady who has already appeared before the public, and who is said to be well acquainted with Hebrew literature. It is indeed highly creditable to her learning and research.

Dr. Lindoe's well meant pamphlet is written in a more rhetorical style, and labours a point which it seems really superfluous to argue; namely, that slavery is inconsistent with the spirit of Christianity. To those who attempt to reconcile the two, we
always

always feel inclined to apply an old maxim of the logicians, "*contra negantem principia non est arguendum.*" If the intellect be so confused as not to perceive, or the heart so corrupted as not to admit, the inconsistency and folly of justifying a system of oppression and cruelty by a reference to that law which is perfect freedom and boundless mercy, it is in vain to attempt to make any impression by argument. The time, however, we believe is almost past for defending slavery on principle, and its advocates now for the most part rest their cause on the ground of policy: but even here they have, we think, been completely routed; and they will probably discover in the sequel that the dictates of justice and of policy are more nearly connected, than at present they seem inclined to suppose.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 20. *The Literary Souvenir; or, Cabinet of Poetry and Romance.* Edited by Alaric A. Watts. 12mo. 12s. Boards. Hurst and Co.

Art. 21. *Friendship's Offering; or, the Annual Remembrancer: a Christmas Present, or New Year's Gift for 1825.* 12mo. 12s. Relfe.

In our Number for January last, we announced to our readers the appearance of two new Pocket-Books, or Almanacs, or New Year's Gifts, modelled on the German fashion, and of a nature superior to those which had hitherto been prepared in this country, both in the intrinsic merit of their contents and in the beauty of the engravings by which they were ornamented. The success which attended those productions seems to have excited other competitors in the same walk; and accordingly we have now two rivals to the *Forget Me Not* and *The Graces* of the last year. As we then intimated, such productions are scarcely proper objects of our notice: but the novelty and spirit of the attempt induced us to mention them, and it is but fair to make a report of these additional instances of the activity of our London booksellers. Mr. Watts's publication, indeed, disdains the title and the office of an Almanac; containing no such particulars as belong to a work of that class, and claiming public favor merely as a collection of original pieces in verse and prose, to form an elegant new-year's gift.

Our readers are not unacquainted with the poetic merit of Mr. Watts's own compositions; and they will find themselves no strangers to his associates in this undertaking, when we state their names to be Allan Cunningham, Mrs. Hemans, Mr. Montgomery, Mrs. Opie, Mr. Bowles, James Hogg, Mr. Campbell, Mr. Wiffen, Mr. Maturin, Archdeacon Wrangham, and many others. These names must of themselves indicate the nature and merit of the compositions, which are in both prose and verse, and are not only so numerous but so extremely various in their subjects, that it is equally impossible for us to give any detailed or any general character of them. We cannot but remark, however, that, were our judgment consulted, we should exclude the mischievous nonsense of German ghost-stories. The engravings, ten in number, and executed in the line-manner, are very pleasing: three plates of

autographs of living poets are added; and the whole volume is prepared in the most handsome manner.

Among Mr. Wiffen's contributions, are the following *Lines to a Lady, with a Leaf of the Mulberry-tree planted by Milton in the Garden of Christ's College, Cambridge.*

' This from the tree which Milton's gracious hand
Planted in morning of his years, receive,
The holiest relique Granta has to give;
No British queen, no princess of the land,
Could, for her temples, wish a crown more grand
Than these green leaves might shape: — they have a look
As tho' they had o'erhung Castalia's brook,
And by the airs of Thessaly been fanned.
We might expect, were antique fables true,
To see Apollo from the sky descend,
Tearing the laurel from his brows divine
For this terrestrial plant; ah, then adieu
To songs Pierian! He must lose, sweet friend,
Memory of Daphne's eyes in chaunting thine!

Mrs. Hemans has thus feelingly versified the well-known anecdote of the mother, on seeing her infant playing on the brink of a precipice, prompted by nature to uncover her bosom to its eyes, in order to allure it with safety from its frightful position. It is also the subject of one of the engravings.

' Where art thou, boy? Heaven, heaven, the babe is playing,
Even on the margin of the dizzy steep!
Haste, — hush! a breath, my agony betraying,
And he is gone! — beneath him rolls the deep!
Could I but keep the bursting cry suppressed,
And win him back in silence to my breast!
' Thou'rt safe! — Thou com'st, with smiles my fond arms meeting,
Blest, fearless child! I, I have tasted death!
Nearer! that I may *feel* thy warm heart beating,
And see thy bright hair floating in my breath!
Nearer! to still my bosom's yearning pain, —
I clasp thee now, mine own! thou'rt here again!

The *Friendship's Offering*, like Mr. Watts's *Souvenir*, is composed of fugitive pieces in prose and verse: but it has the addition of a Pocket-book Diary for every month in the year, with a vignette engraving for each; and it has the specific object of including descriptive notices, with engraved views, of the principal cities or picturesque towns in various parts of the world. It gives also engravings from celebrated pictures by the first masters: all executed in a very respectable style, considering the limited size of the plates. The contributors are Mrs. Opie, Rev. T. Dale, Mr. Lloyd, Miss Edgeworth, and some anonymous writers. A few charades, riddles, and music, are likewise added; and the work is more than equal to some of its rivals in general elegance and decoration.

Mr. Lloyd

Mr. Lloyd is the principal poetic associate, and many of his pieces are translations from the German and the Italian. The following is from the latter language :

‘ *Sonnet.*

- ‘ The slave condemn’d to ply the lab’ring oar,
His feet oppress’d beneath the galling chain,
Does, in his wand’ring prison, oft deplore
His freedom lost, tho’ he deplore in vain.
But should this freedom to his prayers be given?
Insensate ! from his chains he will not part ;
But madly sells this noblest gift of heaven ;
Such power has habit o’er the human heart.
- ‘ Cynthia, this fool am I : thy base deceit
Released my vows ; and yet before thy will
I bend, and to my chains submit my feet.
This fool am I : nay, e’en more foolish still ;
For, since from thee no favor I receive,
My liberty I do not sell, but give.’

The illuminated and embossed covers and title-page of this work are elegant specimens of those branches of art.

Art. 22. *Aureus* ; or, the Life and Opinions of a Sovereign. Written by Himself. 12mo. pp. 438. 7s. 6d. Boards. Wightman. 1824.

We were at first inclined to imagine that we had here the adventures of a *bond fide* sovereign, or monarch, on the plan of Baron Trenck or the still more famous Baron Munchausen ; but we find, by dint of patient perusal, that the present *Sovereign* issues from the *King’s mint*, not the *King’s palace* ; and that one of our newly *coined* sovereigns is here presumed to vie with the Splendid Shilling, the Adventures of a Halfpenny, and other facetious pieces of the same class. Much of the humorous spirit, however, that tickles us by its symbolical truth and illustration in some of the former of these works, will vainly be sought in the present ; its chief claims to notice resting rather on the moral and pathetic passages with which it somewhat incongruously abounds, than on many flights of fancy or of humor. Yet the descriptions are often forcible and true, the language is easy, and the incidents are not ill imagined. Thus, in the course of the *Sovereign’s* peregrinations, the author properly takes occasion from his subject to reflect on the prevailing vices or follies of the age ; and we have a picture of a fashionable rendezvous for gamesters, with a visit from a police-officer, &c., which we may quote as a fair specimen of his manner.

‘ I travelled with my new master to London. He originally was heir to a handsome patrimony, had been well educated, and, though an indifferent actor, had a fine figure, with the manners and address of a gentleman, and was a particular favourite with a celebrated Countess, who always called him her *pet player*. He was, however, better known in the green-room by the name of Lorenzo.

Lorenzo. No sooner had we arrived in town, than he equipped himself for a visit to the residence of the Countess, in one of the streets adjoining Piccadilly, where princes and players, peers and stock-brokers, bankers and black-legs, Jews and Gentiles, were jumbled together in glorious confusion, and over whom the noble hostess neither disdained to preside, nor blushed to share the profits, which the keeper of the bank is sure to obtain, with the notorious Mr. Deuce, who is but too well known upon the turf, and in every circle in which the demon of chance predominates.

‘ This man’s courage is as unquestionable as his character is equivocal. His manners are insidious, and his command of temper complete. He is a perfect master of his art, and proceeds to the extreme verge of honesty without fear of reproof; for though he seldom loses, no one ever ventures to dispute his claim. There are some odd points of similarity between this superlative punter, and Homer the prince of poets. If one was a Grecian the other is a Greek; and the birthplace of the one is as great a matter of uncertainty as that of the other; for though Mr. Deuce’s memory is surprisingly comprehensive on certain points, his recollection is so defective on others, that he knows nothing of his origin, his family, or even the place of his nativity. He has laboured hard in his vocation; for, from the lowest obscurity, he has amassed a princely fortune, and may be seen every morning in the fashionable season of the year sitting at the window of a certain subscription-house on the right-hand side of St. James’s Street, with a quizzing-glass at his eye, in familiar colloquy with some of the first nobles and commoners of the land, who are not ashamed to call him their “very good friend,” and look up to him for his opinion on the calculation of chances as oracular and decisive. This man’s successful progress, and the countenance bestowed upon him by the great, might have been regarded as a satire upon the moral government of the world, did we not know, that, in spite of external appearances, he is wretched and unhappy. Look at the deeply-furrowed lines of his face, the dark frown that hangs upon his brow! The smile of hilarity never lightens up his countenance; his smile is the grin of a fiend, exulting over his prey, while the stings of conscience are gnawing at his heart.

‘ Fortune favoured Lorenzo on the evening of his arrival; but the party breaking up rather sooner than usual, he looked in at a noted gaming-house in Jermyn-Street. It is impossible to give an adequate idea of one of these modern Hells, as they are emphatically called. In their pestiferous precincts may be seen persons, the most intimately connected, labouring for each other’s ruin with all the assiduity and eagerness of the most inveterate foes. Nor do those alone whom necessity might stimulate to such a desperate course, but those likewise who are blessed with the favours of fortune, give themselves up to anxiety and often to embittered agony, for the wild hope of acquiring something additional to the profits they have secured, or of retrieving their losses. There some of the noblest by birth are seated at the same table with the vilest of the vile. Every black passion of the human heart is there

there frightfully personified. Every moment produces some sudden transition from despair to exultation, from shouts of joy to the most blasphemous execrations.

Great and extraordinary care is taken against surprise. The windows are padded, to prevent the sound of vociferations from being heard on the outside. None but the initiated, or their friends, are admitted within the doors. Scouts and spies are on the watch, and every avenue is barricadoed, and guarded with as much caution and regularity as the approaches to a garrison during a siege. The means of retreat are not neglected; but that evening the enemy succeeded, not by storm, but by stratagem. A gentleman in military boots and regulation mustachios appeared at the grated loop-hole of the iron door; employing the pass-word of the night, the bolts and bars flew back at the talisman, and he was immediately admitted. He hastily followed the sentinel into the interior of the fortress, where a promiscuous assemblage of gameful combatants were eagerly engaged.

‘ When Greek meets Greek, then comes the tug of war.

He no sooner entered the apartment than he presented a pistol in each hand, and swore that he would shoot the first man through the head who ventured to stir from his seat. He then shewed his authority as one of the messengers from Bow-Street, made a *grab* at the bank; and whilst he and the keeper of the cash were scrambling for the money, several of the company made their escape, some in one direction and some in another.’

It will be perceived from the above specimen that, however deficient this little production may be in elegance or in a very high seasoned spirit of humor, the reader may still cull something from its pages both instructive and entertaining.

Art. 23. *Historical Memoirs on La Vendée.* By Madame de Sapinaud. Translated from the French. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Knight. 1824.

In the war of La Vendée, which broke out on the 12th of March, 1793, the peasants revolted in the district of La Brietiére, and afterward dispersed themselves among the neighbouring parishes. They then came in a body to M. Sapinaud de Bois-Huguet, better known by the name of La Verrie. “ We have chosen you,” said they, “ for our General, and you shall march at our head.” M. Sapinaud, brother-in-law to the writer of these pages, endeavoured to convince them of the misfortunes which they would bring on themselves and on La Vendée, and of the utter hopelessness of the insurrection of a single department against eighty-two; advising them to return home, and not throw away their lives without a chance. The peasantry, however, would not listen to his advice; and, seeing them resolved, M. Sapinaud consented to share their fortunes with them, put himself at their head, departed on the same day for a place called Les Herbiers, and perished at the bridge of Chanon on the 15th of August following, after having headed his men with great success and valor in a variety of engagements. — The present is a dry and meagre

meagre sketch of some of the events in the Vendéan war. Madame de la Rochejacquelin has indeed given a narrative of that war so full, so faithful, so extremely interesting, and so intelligible, that perhaps we are become fastidious: but the personal sufferings, perils, and escapes of an individual, and that individual a female high in character and station, can never be read without sympathy. Although such a feeling will not be withheld on the present occasion, yet, as an historical contribution, we certainly are not prepared to set a high value on the production before us; which adds little or nothing of any importance to the stock of information that we already possessed.

Art. 24. *The Beauties of Modern Literature*, in Verse and Prose; to which is prefixed a Preliminary View of the Literature of the Age. By M. M'Dermot, Author of a Critical Dissertation on the Nature and Principles of Taste, &c. 8vo. pp. 588. 14s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1824.

Mr. M'Dermot announces his intention of making a selection of the kind now before us annually, if not half yearly; and, from the mass of publications which are daily issuing from the press, no doubt a very amusing series of extracts might be formed. We apprehend, however, that Mr. M'Dermot will find himself in some measure forestalled by those more rapid observers, whose practice now is to entertain their customers with extracts by the week. Those, indeed, who read merely for amusement will seek for a more immediate supply of the new things; and those who read for other purposes will not be satisfied with mere extracts, but will be desirous to have at hand what they consider as works of merit in their original forms. To the present volume, the editor has 'prefixed a preliminary view of the literature of the age;' in the course of which he makes some rather wild excursions into criticism on poetry in general. How far he is competent to enter on such a field may perhaps be judged from the following short remark: 'surely it will not be contended that there is a *particle* of the *pathetic* in Milton, from beginning to end:' but, if any person wishes for a farther proof of this gentleman's sensibility and judgment, he may read the criticism which is contained in the same Preliminary View on Campbell's "Last Man."

Among the poetical extracts, the best are a scene in Goethe's *Faust*, the *Enchanted Flute*, and Campbell's "Last Man:"—among the prose-extracts, a memoir of Mr. Roscoe, some remarks by Mr. Butler on classical studies, and a dissertation on Londoners from Hazlitt's "Table Talk."

Art. 25. *Glances from the Moon*; or, Lucubrations gathered from the Miscellany of One unknown. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1824.

There is a strange mixture of sense and nonsense, ingenious trifling, sarcasm, and philosophical (not religious) scepticism in these *lunatic* lucubrations. The scepticism is philosophical: Newton's doctrines of gravitation and attraction being treated with as little ceremony as Berkley's doctrine of the non-existence
of

of matter. This Man in the Moon, who fixes his long telescope, and looks at our orb just as we look at his, tells us that it is not quite so certain an affair as we imagine that the flowing and ebbing of the waters of the ocean, — that is, the tides, — are regulated by the state and changes which are going forwards in his pale globe. He indulges, likewise, in what our astronomers will deem some very heterodox notions as to the number, distance, and dimensions of the planets; and he quizzes, rather irreverently, the notion of such "brave and expeditious posting" as 3,600,000 miles in an hour, the degree of velocity which that 'thing called Light' is supposed to travel. These and sundry other subjects, physical and metaphysical, on the consciousness of vegetables, on the language of birds, fortune-telling, sleep, dreams, &c. &c., fill up the volume; — the production of some one who indulges his speculations, at all events, to amuse himself. We always respect an original thinker. The sparks of thought fly upwards; some will become extinct without contact; others, the wildest among them perhaps, may fall on some combustible materials, and be the means of illuminating a dark horizon.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The respectable and respectful communication of *D. R.* has been perused by us with the attention which it deserved: but we must decline any detailed discussion of it. Our sentiments are not altered by the writer's representations, and we therefore have nothing farther to state. As occasion requires, however, we shall not fail to call to mind some of the statements and arguments contained in this paper.

S. P. is informed that we do not mean to overlook the publications which he mentions, but they require consideration. Hasty opinions are not always just.

X. R. Y.'s letter has been applied to the purpose suggested by the writer in his postscript.

* * * The APPENDIX to this volume of the *M. Review* will be published on the 1st of February, with the Number for January.



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